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A BRIEF OUTLINE OF ITALIAN FOREIGN POLICY

*GOVERNMENT AND PARLIAMENTARY DECISIONS
DURING 1962*

MODERNIZING THE ITALIAN ARMY

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Italdoc, bulletin published every fifteen days and containing information for the press in four languages - English, Spanish, French and German (Year II).

* * *

The Service also edits series of volumes and pamphlets for distribution in Italy and abroad. It also distributes, on request, photographs, or plastic clichés, documenting Italian life, to the Italian and foreign press; it is also responsible for the production of documentary films illustrating the progress made in Italy. The documentaries produced — many of which have been dubbed in a number of languages and distributed abroad — are about 200.

GOVERNMENT AND PARLIAMENTARY DECISIONS AND ACHIEVEMENTS DURING 1962

General Summary of Social, Economic and Agricultural Affairs The Chamber of Deputies and the Senate

Between March and December 1962, the 4th. Fanfani Government gave its chief attention to speeding approval of the Bills drafted by earlier Cabinets and the elaboration of certain of these proposals to suit the new programme outlined by the Prime Minister during his speech to the Chamber of Deputies and the Senate on March 2. The Government also approved various other Bills submitted by Ministers, presented them to Parliament and undertook their immediate execution.

In all, the Italian Government introduced 181 Bills drafted by preceding Cabinets, drafted 261 Bills of its own, modified 7 that had been proposed before it came to power and passed one Parliamentary Bill. Of the total of 269 Bills, 36 are still waiting to be presented to Parliament, 233 had been presented by December 31, 1962 and still have to be debated, 56 have been approved by only one of the Houses while 91 have passed through both. In conclusion, the Government has approved 115 decrees and 4 decrees having force of law and which were subsequently voted by Parliament.

* * *

During a press conference held at Palazzo Chigi on December 28, 1962, which was attended by Italian and foreign correspondents, the Prime Minister, Signor Amintore Fanfani, observed: "*During 1962, Italian economy expanded at a rate that was well ahead of other nations*".

Recalling the basic points of the Government programme, he drew attention to some items of particular importance, such as nationalization of the electrical industry, standard compulsory schooling — something he considered to be of historical importance — aid to students (from elementary stages to university), safeguards for women workers, increases in wage and salary scales (Civil Servants and other public employees in particular), the introduction of a tax on dividends, increases to minimum pensions for about ten million workers, the Bills on the institution of Regions with ordinary statutes and, in general, the various schemes that should stimulate social pro-

gress, reorganization of public departments and a new economic structure.

Italy has obtained some excellent results in foreign policy, details of which are contained in another article in this issue.

As far as economy is concerned, incomplete official statistics reveal a general favourable trend. It is estimated that national income in 1962 was about 6% above the levels reached by other European nations and the United States.

The general index for industrial production during the period January-October 1962 was 219.1, a rise of 9.76% over the same period of the previous year.

Foreign trade also improved. In January-October 1962, imports rose to 3,086.0 milliard lire, 14.9% above the same period of 1961, while exports increased to 2,399 milliard lire, this figure being 11.9% over that of January-October 1961.

A more detailed analysis of exports shows that there has been an expansion in agricultural exports which rose by 23.2% in value and 11.5% in quantity in January-October 1962. Exports of industrial products increased by 10.8% in value and 9.1% in quantity.

Within the ambit of the E.E.C. member states, imports rose to 967.7 milliard lire (equal to 31.3% of total imports), an increase of 23.3% over the corresponding period of 1961 and exports expanded to 841.8 milliard lire (equal to 35.1% of total exports), a jump of 24.6%. However, the rise in exports was also registered for other industrial nations (+10.4% for the E.F.T.A.) while those to the United States, with an increase of 16.4%, are to be considered satisfactory.

Agriculture was the target of several new and far reaching decisions which should result in sweeping reorganization of this branch of economy. The beginning of 1962 witnessed the initial period of execution of the agricultural programme and, during the first few months, approval was given to the first regulations governing Community agricultural policy which came into force not long afterwards (price stability for wheat, exports of horticultural products, regulations on other cereals, Community regulations on rice, beef, cheese and milk products, etc.). Among the new rulings which should facilitate rapid improvements in Italian agriculture are: further allocations of 78 milliard lire for development of mountainous localities, to be paid over a period of five years; a further two milliard lire for livestock breeding; a further 30 milliard lire, to be invested over a period of three years, which will be added to the "revolving fund" created for the purpose of speedily developing mechanized farming

and irrigation. A Bill now before Parliament foresees allocation of 20 milliard lire in one year to the land reform agencies. In June 1962, instructions were given for the reorganization of the land reform consortia and the transformation of other reform agencies into development agencies. Such instructions will enable the competent public departments to guide agricultural expansion in certain zones of Italy that are particularly backward but which can be made more prosperous if new systems are followed. Furthermore, the agricultural Bill approved by the Cabinet at the end of November and which has now been submitted to the Council for Economy and Labour for its opinions, provides more specific details as to the responsibilities and authority of the development agencies.

The Government has also taken some important measures over taxation, following proposals put forward during the National Conference on Italian Agriculture. Parliament has approved a Bill that excludes inheritance tax on farms worth less than 12 million lire when the heir is a member of the family. A Bill has also been passed which increases pensions for agricultural smallholders, farmers leasing land and labourers from 5,000 to 10,000 lire (minimum pensions) while Parliament has further given its approval to a Bill that adjusts rent scales for land.

Under the *economic aid programme* for Africa and Asia, considered as part of the general aid policy for emergent nations, several measures have been presented to Parliament by the Government. Some of them concern increases in credits that Italy is prepared to issue for exports; these mostly concern South America, Africa and the Middle East.

* * *

The *Chamber of Deputies* had to face a considerable volume of work during 1962 and the data and figures that follow will give an idea of the debates and the meetings of the various Standing Committees.

Between January 16, when it first assembled, and December 21, the date of the last debate in 1962, the Chamber of Deputies held 199 public debates while the Standing Committees and special Commissions met 763 times. Of the latter figure, 384 meetings were for legislative purposes.

A statistical summary of the agenda of the Chamber offers the following data: 316 Government Bills were presented in 1962, of which 314 were approved (96 by the Chamber itself and 218 by the various Committees). Members' Bills numbered 541 of which 178 were

approved (14 by the Chamber of Deputies and 164 by the Committees). A further 281 are still being discussed, 3 have been rejected, 55 inserted in other Bills and 17 withdrawn.

In executing its task of political control and supervision of Government action, the Chamber of Deputies sat eleven times to discuss "a vote of no confidence" in the 4th. Fanfani Cabinet, but this was defeated on May 10, 1962. It also met to discuss Government statements on December 5, 1962, following a reshuffle in the Cabinet (1).

Among some of the Bills of major importance discussed during the past year were: the Government Bill on the creation of the Electricity Board (2), the Education Bill covering building of schools over the three-year period 1962-65, the Bill introducing standard secondary school education, several Bills modifying and widening legislation on the development of the southern regions of Italy, and the State Railways Act which covers modernization of track, installations and rolling stock. The Chamber of Deputies also ratified a number of international agreements, including those with Somalia, between the E.E.C. and Greece and, in conclusion, between Italy and the Federal German Republic. Touching constitutional legislation, Members approved the special statute for the Autonomous Region of Friuli-Venetia Julia (which, with the Valle d'Aosta, Trentino-Alto Adige, Sicily and Sardinia brings the number of autonomous regions in Italy to 5). This law being a constitutional matter, must be read twice by both the Chamber of Deputies and the Senate. The Bill concerning the creation of the Friuli-Venetia Julia Region came into force after the final reading and approval which took place on January 1, 1963.

It also made a first reading of the Bill modifying those articles in the Constitution dealing with the composition and membership of the Senate.

The Standing Committees were called upon to examine several very important Bills dealing with economic, social and financial affairs.

* * *

For its part, the Senate met on 156 occasions in 1962, while the Standing Committees and various Commissions assembled 387 times.

(1) Refer: "Italian Affairs", *Reshuffle in fourth Fanfani Government*, Vol. XI, No. 6, pp. 4121-24.

(2) Refer: "Italian Affairs", November-December 1962, Vol. XI, No. 6 pp. 4157-60, *The Nationalization of the Electrical Industry*.

es. In all, 471 Bills were discussed, of which 129 were passed by the Senate itself and 342 by the Committees.

Some of the more important Bills approved covered a wide range of activity; the Water Control Bill, the Bill modifying the law on the development of Calabria, the Sardinian Development Plan, a Bill covering special aid to the city of Naples, improvements to pension scales for a large category of workers, including the artisan trades, the Bill on the institution of the Marches Region (increasing the total number of Italian Regions to 20), a Bill modifying regulations on life imprisonment contained in the Penal Code, delegation of powers to the Government in relation to reorganization of the Ministry of Defence and the General Staffs of the three services, regulations on the promulgation and publications of laws and decrees signed by the President of the Republic, rules on the calling for a " referendum " as considered in the Constitution, and a Bill concerning the organization and development of scientific research in Italy. As far as the latter item is concerned, a Cabinet reshuffle took place in November 1962 and a Minister without Portfolio was appointed to coordinate and guide all research activities.

Publication of the illustrated magazine "ITALIA" began again in January of this year. Printed in five languages (English, French, Spanish, German and Arabic) and published every two months, this magazine is a useful photographic reminder of the persons and events of importance in contemporary Italy. Of large format, printed in rotogravure, interested readers can reproduce the photographs in any newspaper or publication by any method.

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CONVERSION TABLES

LENGTH

1 mm =	0.03937 ins.
1 cm =	0.3937 ins.
1 m =	39.37 ins.
1 m =	3.281 feet.
1 m =	1.0936 yds.
1 km =	0.62137 Statute miles.
1 km =	3.280.8 feet.
1 km =	0.5396 nautical miles.

SURFACE

1 mmq =	0.00155 sq. ins.
1 cmq =	0.155 sq. ins.
1 mq =	10.764 sq. ft.
1 mq =	1.196 sq. yd.
1 kmq =	0.3861 sq. mi (Statute)
1 kmq =	247.1 acres.
1 ha =	2.471 acres.

CAPACITY

		1 mc = 35.314 cu. ft.
	WEIGHT	1 mc = 1.308 cu. yd.
1 hg =	3.527 oz (avoirdupois)	1 mc = 264.18 gals (U.S.A.231 cu. in)
1 kg =	2.2046 lbs (avoirdupois)	1 cm = 220.09 gals (Imperial gallon)
1 kg =	35.27 oz (avoirdupois)	1 l = 35.21 fl. oz (G.B.)
1 q =	220.46 lbs (avoirdupois)	1 l = 0.22009 gals (Imp.)
1 t =	0.98421 tons (long-ton-G.B.)	1 hl = 22.009 gals (Imp.)

TEMPERATURE

Fahrenheit = (Centigrade $\times$ 1.8) + 32.

Centigrade = (Fahrenheit - 32) $\times$.55.

N.B. - mm = millimetre
 cm = centimetre
 m = metre
 km = kilometre

hg = hectogramme l = litre
 kg = kilogramme hl = hectolitre
 q = quintal
 t = ton

HEAT

1 Kcal = 3.8 B.T.U.

AN OUTLINE OF ITALIAN FOREIGN POLICY

Italy's International Role and the Salient Events of 1962

During 1962, world relations were influenced by the United States — Soviet Union dispute over Berlin and Cuba and differences over disarmament at Geneva, continued negotiations between the European Economic Community and Great Britain relative to the entry of the United Kingdom to the Common Market (and consequent hope that the other member states of EFTA will follow suit), the American decision to revise its customs policy as a means of establishing closer ties with the E.C.M., the independence of Algeria, the reaching of a *modus vivendi* in Laos, the settlement of the controversy between Holland and Indonesia over western New Guinea, the fall of the monarchy in Yemen, the sudden flaring-up of Sino-Indian contrasts over the Hymalaya borders and their speedy and sudden collapse, a wider gap between the Soviet Union and China and a corresponding improvement in relations between the western world and the Soviet Union which led to stronger hopes for agreement on the cessation of nuclear experiments which were continued on both sides however, confirmation of U Thant as Secretary General of the United Nations and, in conclusion, a new attempt at settling the Katanga question.

* * *

The year 1962 opened with United States approaches to the Soviet Union as to whether it might be possible to reach an agreement or a *modus vivendi*, even of a temporary nature, over the German question. During the meetings of the Atlantic Council in Paris on December 13/15, 1961, attended by the Ministers for Foreign Affairs and Defence of the member states, the United States had been authorized to sound the Soviet Government's reaction to such proposals.

High-level U.S.-Russian talks in Moscow, Geneva and New York, continued from January 2 to July 14. In the end it became apparent that although western circles were determined that the presence of Allied troops in West Berlin should not be challenged and that any eventual *modus vivendi* should only concern guarantees over communications between the city and the German Federal Republic, in order not to compromise the principle of German reunification, the Soviets were not of the same mind. Moscow insisted on the signing of a peace treaty with the Bonn and Pankow governments which

sanctioned the division of Germany into three parts: German Federal Republic, German Democratic Republic and the Free City of West Berlin, the latter to be eventually placed under the United Nations which would then order the Allies to withdraw their troops. The Soviet Government also suggested the possibility of a separate peace treaty between the countries of the eastern bloc and the German Democratic Republic but refused to alter its first two requirements — creation of the Free City of West Berlin and withdrawal of Allied troops.

In view of the impossibility to reach any agreement and the suspension of further talks and since four-power administration of the former German capital no longer existed after the Soviets closed their Kommandatur in Berlin (August 22), it was generally expected that Moscow would sign a separate peace treaty with the Pankow authorities. Such being the case, the Allies were prepared to use all ways and means in guaranteeing access to the city and undertaking its defence.

Because of the sudden tense world situation which followed the failure of the talks over Berlin and the sudden discovery of some thousands of Russian « technicians » in Cuba, the United States recalled 150,000 reservists. But, at the same time, the TASS Agency published a Note on September 11 which, after lengthy references to American threats against Cuba and Soviet determination to protect Fidel Castro's regime, even if this meant war, announced that any Soviet decisions over Berlin would be delayed until after the U.S. elections of November 6.

This covertly established a relationship between Berlin and Cuba for the Americans used the situation in the Caribbean as justification for recalling 150,000 reservists to the colours, although they were particularly preoccupied over the atmosphere that the Berlin talks had created. On the other hand, the Soviets put off any decision over the former German capital at the conclusion of a lengthy Note dealing with the situation in Cuba.

At the time, there were many who asked why it was that the Soviet Union was once again delaying its repeated proposal to sign a separate peace treaty with the Pankow government. The reply came several weeks later when the United States learned that the Soviets were feverishly building rocket sites in Cuba and supplying Fidel Castro with their most modern medium-range missiles. They were also delivering modern nuclear-armed Ilyushin 28 bombers to the island.

American reaction was immediate. The U.S. Navy blockaded Cuba, halting supplies of all offensive war material and, at the same time, the Soviet Government was asked to dismantle the bases it had estab-

lished on the island. The Washington authorities made it quite clear that, if such requests were not met, the U.S. would invade Cuba.

The Kremlin leaders, instead of being able to use a dominating position as a means of forcing the German question and other important problems that were pending, were suddenly faced with the disturbing possibility of having the Americans seize the missiles and modern aircraft they had incautiously sent to Cuba, and which could not be defended by conventional weapons, or being compelled to accept an armed conflict that might well develop into nuclear warfare. Again, they had the opportunity of dismantling the rocket sites they had constructed in Cuba and withdrawing the bombers they had sent to Fidel Castro. They wisely accepted the latter proposal and, with a considerable number of personal messages exchanged between Kennedy and Khrushchev, East-West relations entered a period of minor tension.

The United Nations did everything possible to settle the controversy after the United States had submitted its case and requested that the organization take action. The most acute phase of the crisis was surmounted in great part because of the intelligence and labours of the Secretary General, Mr. U Thant.

The Italian government, in 1961, had supported the Atlantic Council's decision to entrust the United States with the task of approaching the Soviets over a *modus vivendi* for Berlin. It followed U.S.-Russian talks with close attention and did not fail to point out that it favoured any agreement which, without compromising the principle of German reunification, would permit consolidation of peace in Europe and eventually enable discussions to be tabled over other outstanding problems, disarmament in particular.

When the tension between East and West suddenly reached the danger point and the centre of controversy moved from Berlin to Cuba, the Italian government did everything possible to facilitate peaceful intervention, charging its diplomatic representatives to discuss the question with the chief world powers and sending the Undersecretary of State for Foreign Affairs, the Hon. Carlo Russo, to the United Nations so that he could personally follow the more critical stages of the crisis and offer Italy's good offices.

Italy's reaction to the threat of nuclear warfare that seemed to hang over the world at that period was summed up by the Prime Minister, Signor Amintore Fanfani, during a speech in the Chamber of Deputies on October 23. He said:

« At a moment when talks over disarmament and a nuclear armistice have reached a critical stage, the idea of creating bases where they did not exist appears extremely contradictory, for it creates fur-

ther preoccupation when enough already existed and upsets an already precarious balance, the continuation of which — in the hope of reasonable and loyal agreement — is necessary to the uncertain peace of the world. Although the hour is grave the Italian Government considers that the Government of the United States has done right in asking the United Nations to intervene so that, under international control, the causes of alarm can be ascertained and eliminated.

« This request provides a possibility of peacefully settling a crisis that is otherwise full of unforeseeable and extremely serious possibilities. The solidarity of Italy for a friendly and allied power must follow that path which has been set by the United States and upon which the United Nations is embarking this very day. We believe that the correct answers can be found before the United Nations, the more so because of the repeated intention of the United States to avail itself of all efforts at peace, even to the point of making a direct appeal for cooperation to those responsible for Soviet policy.

« The Italian government is not limiting itself to casting a vote but is doing everything possible so that the will for peace expressed by the United States may be an important element in the happy outcome of a question over which the warm appeal launched by President Kennedy, if accepted by Khrushchev, could be final. All the world's leaders — and let us not forget a recent and authoritative warning — must contribute, today more than ever before, towards the success of this arduous task.

« Loyal to Italy's allies, the Government is carrying out this duty in the most opportune manner, with tenacity and determination ».

The line of conduct suggested by Italy prevailed in the end and this testified to the wisdom of this country's leaders.

When the Foreign Ministers and Ministers of Defence of the Atlantic Council met again in Paris on December 13, 1962, they could see that the U.S.-Soviet talks over Berlin, authorized a year ago, had passed through varying and even dramatic phases but at least the protagonists had clarified their respective positions and, without the Allied interests being compromised, there were signs that an « agreement » or even a *modus vivendi* might be reached in East-West relations.

* * *

At the end of 1962, it seemed possible that some agreement might be reached over *disarmament*. Even though the chances of general agreement were rather more than scarce there did appear some signs that something could be done over the suspension of experiments,

both on land, at sea and in the atmosphere. The question of underground experiments, however, seemed much more difficult because of Soviet refusal to accept any form of control.

During the year in question, Italy made a very substantial attempt to persuade the powers to come to some agreement over disarmament, limited even to nuclear experiments initially since these were the main preoccupation of mankind.

Together with France, Great Britain, the United States and Canada, Italy is one of the five western members of the special Commission of 18, formed by the United Nations on December 13, 1961 to replace the former Commission of Ten which it had created in 1960. The other members are the U.S.S.R., Poland, Czechoslovakia, Roumania and Bulgaria, representing the Soviet bloc, and Egypt, India, Sweden, Ethiopia, Nigeria, Burma, Mexico and Brazil for the « non-aligned » powers.

The Commission met at Geneva from March 14 to June 15, from July 15 to September 8 and again from November 26 onwards. Italy's contribution mainly consisted of helping in trying to discover a path that would permit the more difficult aspects of East-West differences to be overcome. But the main difficulty continued to be Soviet refusal to accept adequate international control of the disarmament measures to be finally agreed upon.

* * *

Italian diplomacy was also kept busy with the *negotiations between the six member states of the European Economic Community and Great Britain*, relative to the latter's entry to the Community. Great Britain made a request for admission as a full member on July 31 of last year and the talks, which opened on November 8, 1961, continued throughout the year. Their length was due to the many technical difficulties involved in harmonizing British economic requirements (and those of the Commonwealth nations which were tied to the U.K. under the Ottawa Agreement) with the structure already built up by the six member states.

The importance of the British decision to join the European Economic Community, with all the relative political implications, was such that all parties were persuaded that nothing should be left undone in trying to settle the contrasting interests at stake. Italy distinguished herself particularly in this and often found highly suitable answers to particular problems under discussion.

Great Britain's example was bound to be followed by the other members of the E.F.T.A. In fact, Denmark, Ireland, Norway, Swe-

den, Switzerland and Austria successively asked either to become full members of the Common Market or, at least, to be associated with it. Their requests were followed by similar ones from Spain and Portugal. Certain of these were examined during 1962 but no specific conclusions were reached during the year in question since any final decision must necessarily be subordinate to the outcome of the negotiations with Great Britain.

The difficulties entailed in the talks with Britain have also had repercussions on the political growth of the European Economic Community as foreseen in the Treaty of Rome.

On October 19, 1961, the French government had presented the other five member states of the E.C.M. with a project that considered flanking the three existing communities (C.S.C., E.E.C. and EURATOM) with a Political Commission and a Parliamentary Council.

The structure and powers of this Political Commission would have obviously been influenced by the status of Great Britain in the Common Market. This was one of the causes of the prolonged negotiations on an economic level and the tergiversations that made any agreement an impossibility.

Once again, in this particular field, the Italian government made every effort to introduce conciliatory ideas in the interests of the political construction of Europe. When the first Chairman of the special preparatory Commission, M. Fouchet, was appointed French Ambassador in Algeria, the Secretary General of the Italian Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Ambassador Cattani, was nominated in his place.

Unfortunately, Italian efforts have still not brought about the results that were desired for the six member states of the Community are divided among themselves over the idea of going ahead with the creating political union prior to the conclusion of negotiations over Great Britain's entry. In view of this setback, De Gaulle has suggested a speeding up of a more restricted Franco-German union and, in a Memorandum sent to Chancellor Adenauer on September 19, 1962, he suggested a number of points which would give this a more practical character. These ranged from economic matters to cultural and military affairs. Chancellor Adenaur replied to General De Gaulle on November 12, 1962, with some counterproposals.

Italy is interested in seeing that this new Franco-German friendship does not become something that might compromise or obstruct the creation of a European political union or an alliance that appears in contrast with that solidarity which should hold the members of the Atlantic Alliance together on conditions of absolute equality.

* * *

Looking beyond Europe, no one can deny the success of the European Economic Community, in the creation of which Italy played a leading role, in the United States. The community's prestige has been such that, in his message on the State of the Union (January 11, 1962), President Kennedy said that he hoped that there would be closer *relations between the United States and the Common Market*, adding that America might do well to revise her customs policy. On June 27, the U.S. Congress adopted the « Trade Expansion Act » and this was followed by the « declaration of interdependence » between the United States and Europe, announced by President Kennedy during a speech at Philadelphia on July 4.

This American interest in Europe's new look was accompanied by close attention from the Soviet Union, following Khrushchev's visit to an Italian industrial fair held in Moscow in June 1962. Certain attacks against the Common Market, made by the Soviet leader on this and other occasions, were followed by subsequent Russian admission of the success that the economic and social policies pursued by Italy and the other five member states of the E.C.M. had achieved.

* * *

One of the most important political events of 1962 was *Algeria's appearance as an independent nation*. Interested in everything that happens in the Mediterranean, Italy had followed events in that country with great interest, and did not lose any opportunity of demonstrating complete understanding of the various difficulties involved — political, military, etc. — to both Algerians and French.

When the new independent Algeria made a request for admission to the United Nations, with France's support, and the matter was brought to the attention of the 17th. General Assembly, Italy was only too pleased to add her vote to those of the other 104 members of the organization.

* * *

The year 1962 witnessed the settlement of several somewhat difficult controversies in south-east Asia — Laos and the Holland-Indonesian dispute over western New Guinea.

While the United States and the Soviet Union were sparring over Cuba, the Red Sea was the scene of another event that might well have had serious world consequences. In Yemen, the Chief of Staff,

Colonel Sallal overthrew the monarch on September 27 and the Imam, Mohammed el-Badr, although thought to be dead at first, managed to escape and assemble the forces loyal to him in an attempt to win back his throne. The head of the new government, Colonel Sallal, asked Nasser for help and Egypt immediately sent an expeditionary corps to Yemen. At the same time, Saudi Arabia and Jordan sent troops to help the Imam. This led to a situation full of complications because of the international support that the two factions within the Arab League were seeking to obtain.

At the end, a compromise solution was reached and the Egyptian troops on the one hand, and the Saudi Arabian and Jordan troops on the other, were withdrawn, thus permitting General Sallal an opportunity of giving Yemen a structure more in keeping with modern times, without assuming extremist aspects.

Enjoying great prestige in the Near East, Italy was able to help in reaching this compromise which was mainly the result of United States intervention. On December 19, the Italian government, together with Washington, officially recognized the new Yemenite Republic.

* * *

After a year of tension caused by the Berlin crisis, the sudden outbreak in the Caribbean and the overthrowing of the monarchy in Yemen, the autumn of 1962 witnessed another event likely to disturb the world still further — *China invaded India*.

At this stage, some explanation is necessary. After becoming independent, India became engaged in a controversy with Pakistan over Kashmir, a vast region of 223,000 square kilometres, with a population of 4 million, mostly Moslems, and governed by a Hindu prince at the time in question.

The compromise solution that Lord Mountbatten reached in 1947 foresaw that, when India and Pakistan became independent, the various states of the former Indian Empire would have the opportunity of freely choosing whether they would join either of the two countries in question or, in their turn, become independent.

According to the political and religious trends, Kashmir should have united herself with Pakistan, but her Hindu sovereign promised that she would join India. Although a dissident government, favourable to union with Pakistan, was formed in the border regions, Indian troops occupied a large part of the territory. This led to the Indo-Pakistan controversy which the United Nations, after imposing an armistice and a « temporary demarkation line » along which both

countries have remained in obedience for 14 years, has still failed to settle.

Another example of Indian's policy of unity was to be seen in the latter part of 1961 when Goa, an old Portuguese possession on the west coast, was occupied on New Delhi's orders.

In the north, following the occupation of Tibet by communist China, India soon found herself in sharp contrast with Peking over the border along the Hymalayas, chiefly in the areas west of Nepal, known as Ladak, a distant part of the contested Kashmir where, from 1954 onwards, Chinese troops set up advance garrison posts and built a road joining Tibet to Sinkian. The other area lay east of Bhutan, the inhabitants of which were somewhat hostile to the New Delhi government.

In the latter zone, the borders had been originally decided upon in 1914 during the Anglo-Tibetan-Chinese conference at Simla and they took their name from the British Governor of that period — MacMahon. They have never been officially recognized by the Chinese.

This was the cause of pressing demands from Peking that the Sino-Indian borders be revised, demands that the New Delhi government, in order not to compromise its interests in Kashmir, has constantly attempted to face with delaying tactics similar to those it has employed with Kashmir. The Chinese government replied with military occupation of the contested zones.

In an attempt to make the Indian government come to a decision, the Peking authorities decided to use force in Bhutan. In October, larger numbers of well equipped Chinese troops easily swamped the few Indian frontier garrisons and, in a few days, forced their way through towards the Brahmaputra plain, threatening to invade Assam, a rich oil state, and continue towards the gulf of Bengal.

If such an attempt had been made, the repercussions on the general balance of power in south-east Asia, and even throughout the whole of Asia and the world, would have been such that international circles became immediately alarmed.

The Sino-Indian conflict was considered as an example of Chinese expansion that the communism of Mao-Tse Tung, with its theory of the inevitability of war, seemed determined to pursue.

The question of whether the densely populated lands of India were but an excuse and whether the Soviet republics of central Asia, which could be reached through Sinkian, towards which the road built in Ladak leads, were not perhaps the future, if not immediate, objective of Chinese neo-imperialism, was something that crossed the minds of everyone.

The Italian government did not fail to show its understanding and sympathy for India during the sharper stages of the crisis. It followed events with close attention, mindful of the serious repercussions these could have on the general world situation and the serious threat they were to peace.

On November 21, Chu En Lai, who only the day before had insisted that the borders between the two countries be settled during a summit conference with Nehru, adding threats of invasion, suddenly withdrew Chinese troops to positions 20 miles north of the lines they had occupied prior to November 7, 1959.

It was obvious that this unexpected decision was the result of pressure from the Soviet Union which was rightly worried over the disastrous effects for communism that the Chinese aggression was having on all nations that were not under the Marxist heel.

The sharpening of the Sino-Indian controversy over the Himalayan borders shows that it is more urgent than ever to settle the Indo-Pakistan differences over Kashmir. Although having the moral and diplomatic support of most states at the time of the Chinese invasion, and although she received military aid from the United States and Great Britain, India has suddenly become aware of the danger of her policy of a « non-aligned » nation that, at the same time, sets out to solve such territorial problems as Kashmir, Goa and the northern frontiers.

In the circumstances, the New Delhi government has accepted western suggestions to open negotiations with Karachi in order to settle the Kashmir question. The Italian government, friend of both India and Pakistan, has expressed its satisfaction, adding that it feels sure that they will make every effort to maintain peace in that region.

The Chinese threat to India has had a marked influence on the Soviet attitude towards the western powers. Without altering its policy, obviously, the U.S.S.R. showed itself more willing to avoid aggravating contrasts at the end of 1962 and although seemingly unprepared to finally settle differences, appeared ready to temporarily set aside those matters for which no compromise solution can be found for the moment.

The question of a separate peace treaty between the Soviet Union and the German Democratic Republic and the creation of a Free City of West Berlin, from which Allied troops must be withdrawn, do not seem to be considered as urgent problems any longer by Moscow. There appear to be greater possibilities of an agreement over the suspension of nuclear experiments and, eventually, over the relative controls. In conclusion, the U.S.S.R. accepted the proposal that

U Thant be confirmed as Secretary General of the United Nations. This office became vacant after the tragic death of Dag Hammarskjöld and U Thant had been elected « ad interim » Secretary General on November 3, 1961, his term of office ending on that same date as that of his predecessor (April 1963).

Although having stated earlier that it had no intention of changing its mind, the U.S.S.R. temporarily put aside its proposal of September 23, 1961 that called for the appointment of three Secretaries General — one for the western group, one for the eastern group and one for the « non-aligned » nations (« troika »).

Over this important aspect of international relations, the Italian government could not but congratulate itself on the fact that it had always firmly supported the principle of but one Secretary General for the United Nations, being of the opinion that three would have paralysed the whole organization.

* * *

The support of the Italian government in all operations that the United Nations has been called upon to undertake by the member nations in the interests of peace, was once again evident in 1962 when the *Congo question* again caused unease.

During the first few months of last year, the central government at Leopoldville succeeded in defeating the dissident communist-sympathising government of Stanleyville, headed by Gizenga, who was arrested. But, even with the assistance of the United Nations, it did not succeed in overcoming the tenacious resistance that the leader of the Katanga Government, Tshombe, aided by the Union Minière, continued to make, on his opposition to any union with the Congo Republic.

The Secretary General of the United Nations then decided that U.N. troops should once again help the Congo forces to persuade the Elizabethville authorities to change their attitude and, to this end, various member states, including Italy, were asked to furnish the organization with jet aircraft.

* * *

As in preceding years, 1962 closed with the usual Paris session of the Atlantic Council which was attended by the Foreign Ministers and Ministers of Defence of the member nations.

The problems that were discussed on December 13/15 were those that the events described above had caused. The Council concluded its meeting in an atmosphere that reflected the solidarity existing

among western nations even though there were strong differences of opinion over certain technical aspects of the Alliance. Disagreement existed over the question of a multilateral nuclear force and the authority who should decide when it should be used. General De Gaulle, on the other hand, wished France to have her own « force de frappe » while other circles called for a better balance between nuclear and conventional weapons, the organization of the relative manpower and a contribution to this end from each member nation.

Continued western solidarity considered as an aspect of international collaboration, and therefore of world peace, was confirmed in the following words:

« The objective of the Atlantic Alliance remains the same as it has always been — peace, freedom and security through respect of what is right. Therefore, the Alliance is determined to give a fitting reply to all hostile actions that threaten security and the freedom of member nations subjected to pressure or menaces... The Ministers have stressed the importance of close political consultations that will enable the Alliance to carry out its functions whenever necessary. It must be realised, therefore, that discussions must be embracing ».

* * *

Italy played an important political and diplomatic role in all the events described above and meetings between Italian statesmen and their foreign colleagues did much to ease otherwise critical situations.

Among the most important was the visit that the Prime Minister, Signor Amintore Fanfani and the then Minister for Foreign Affairs, Signor Antonio Segni, made to Morocco on January 8/12, following an invitation received from Hassan II. On January 16/18, they reached London for talks with the British Prime Minister, Mr. MacMillan and the Foreign Secretary, Lord Home. Talks mostly concerned the various aspects of Great Britain's future entry into the European Economic Community.

On April 4, the Prime Minister and the Minister for Foreign Affairs, in answer to a request from General De Gaulle, met the French leader and the French Minister for Foreign Affairs, M. Couve de Murville, in Turin for talks on the major problems of the moment, particularly the Union of European States suggested by De Gaulle. On April 7, Signor Fanfani reported on his talks with Chancellor Adenauer who was spending a short vacation at Cadenabbia.

Arriving in Oslo on April 8/9, the Italian Foreign Minister met the Norwegian Foreign Minister, Mr. Lange, with whom he examined questions relative to the entry of various E.F.T.A. countries into

the E.E.C., following Great Britain's decision. This decision was confirmed when the Lord Privy Seal, Mr. Heath, visited Rome on April 26/27.

The Belgian Prime Minister, M. Lefevre, and the Foreign Minister, M. Spaak, came to Rome on May 18/19 and the U.S. Undersecretary of State, Mr. Ball, arrived shortly afterwards for a short visit (May 21/23). The Swedish Minister of Trade, Mr. Lange, paid an official visit on June 5/8.

On June 7/9, the Italian Prime Minister and the Undersecretary for Foreign Affairs made an official visit to Tunisia, following an invitation from President Burghiba.

The Yugoslav Vice-President was in Rome from June 13 to June 15 and the U.S. Secretary of State, Mr. Dean Rusk arrived on June 23. At the end of the month, the Soviet Vice-President, Mr. Kossighin, came to Italy on a private visit.

The President of the Phillipine Republic paid an official visit to this country on July 7/8 and the Minister of Foreign Affairs of the Low Countries, Mr. Luns, followed on July 17/18.

The Vice-President of the United States, Mr. Lyndon Johnson was in Rome on September 4/7 and the Italian Prime Minister met the French Prime Minister, M. Pompidou, at Courmayer on September 15 when the Mont Blanc tunnel was inaugurated. Mr. Heath, the Lord Privy Seal again came to Rome on September 27 while the Indian Prime Minister, Mr. Nehru arrived the following day. The Italian Prime Minister received an invitation to visit India in the near future.

The Japanese Foreign Minister reached the Italian capital on October 2 and the state visit of the President of the Republic of Senegal, Leopold Senighor, took place on October 2/3. The Japanese Prime Minister paid an official visit to Italy on November 17/21.

These high-level meetings concluded with the state visit of President Segni and his wife, accompanied by the Foreign Minister, Senator Piccioni, to Athens on November 26/28. The Greek sovereigns had visited Rome in March 1959. The deputy Prime Minister and Minister for Foreign Affairs was in Paris on December 12 for talks with Mr. Dean Rusk and, on December 17, he met General De Gaulle during the meeting of the Atlantic Council.

Apart from these numerous meetings, Italian Ministers and diplomats had occasion to attend several international assemblies of a technical nature and be present at sessions held by the various international organizations of which this country is a member. These included the Council of Europe, E.O.C.D., the three European com-

munities, the United Nations and its various branches and the Atlantic Council, which has already been mentioned.

Italian representatives have, at all times, made a strong contribution towards settlement of the questions under discussion and encouraged all attempts that have been directed towards facilitating closer collaboration among nations, on a basis of equality and freedom, two conditions that are essential to the maintaining of peace.

This wish to encourage agreement among the world's nations was also apparent in talks concerning the controversy with Austria over the execution of the De Gasperi-Gruber Agreement on Alto Adige. The previous year had closed with the adoption of a Resolution by the 16th. General Assembly of the United Nations on November 28. This Resolution stated:

" The General Assembly, bearing in mind Resolution No. 1497 (XV), noting with satisfaction that the two parties concerned are engaged in negotiations and observing that the controversy has not yet been settled, asks the two parties to continue their efforts to reach a solution that conforms to paragraphs 1), 2) and 3) of the above-mentioned Resolution ".

* * *

At the time in question, the Government Commission created for the purpose of *examining problems relative to Alto Adige*, under the chairmanship of the Hon. Paolo Rossi, was already at work. It continued its activities throughout 1962, bringing about an atmosphere of greater understanding between the various ethnical groups in the province and, on an international scale, considerably helped Italo-Austrian bilateral negotiations. Austria also requested association with the E.E.C. and this meant that she must enjoy excellent relations with all the member nations of the Community since entry depends upon unanimous approval.

In view of this, when the Italian Foreign Minister, Senator Piccioni and the Austrian Minister of Foreign Affairs, Dr. Kreisky, met in Venice on July 31, the talks were at last constructive and both delegations *observed a definite convergence of viewpoints over the procedure to follow in settling the controversy*.

Because of the improvement in Italo-Austrian relations, the Rome government revoked the order requiring Austrian citizens to obtain visas before entering this country.

The more relaxed atmosphere was apparent in the speeches made to the General Assembly by Dr. Kreisky on September 25, and by Senator Piccioni on September 28.

It had been agreed that bilateral negotiations should continue in the following autumn and might be held at Salzburg on November 7. At that period, however, Austria was in the throes of an election campaign and this threatened to expose talks once again to the "surrenchere" of the Austrian political parties over the Alto Adige question. Proof of this was to be seen in the proposal that the Austrian delegation include representatives of the Tyrol Regional Government. Since diplomatic talks concerning the Agenda had not been completed, Italy considered it wiser to propose that the meeting be held at a later date.

This vocation for peace, so often demonstrated over the past years, was truly expressed in the atmosphere of serenity surrounding the 2nd. Vatican Ecumenical Council which was attended by over 2,000 prelates from all over the world. It opened on October 11 with ceremonies that were attended by 70 foreign government missions.

Italy's activities in the field of international collaboration embraced closer *cultural, economic and social* relations with foreign nations.

Italian institutes and colleges abroad have been increased and cultural relations at all levels have been strengthened. The number of scholarships awarded by the Italian government to foreign students during the scholastic year 1962/63 has increased by 24%.

During the first nine months of the year, imports rose to 2,748 milliard lire, an increase of 13.5% over the corresponding period of 1961. Exports over the said nine months expanded to 2,138 milliard lire, an increase of 13.3% and the balance of payments showed a surplus of 268 million dollars.

Expanding home prosperity and wider possibilities of employment within the ambit of the European Economic Community have again reduced Italian overseas emigration (the Institute of Statistics reports that excess expatriations over repatriations numbered only 23,203, against 44,908 in 1961) but there has been a rise in movement of manpower among the member states, particularly in relation to persons engaged in seasonal employment, most of whom are drawn to Switzerland.

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SOMALIA UNDER ITALIAN ADMINISTRATION

Economic and Social Achievements. Trade, the Balance of Payments, Banking and Credit

Part II.

Ecological conditions in Somalia are such that the country has a prevalently pastoral economy and it was decided that the natural resources should be safeguarded and efforts made to create new sources of wealth (1). Since about two thirds of the population lived off pasture and farming in areas where rain falls, the authorities first turned their attention to agricultural affairs since these would naturally be closely associated with the gradual growth of industry, trade and tertiary activities. Initial investments over a four-year period were followed by others allocated under the budget as well as funds made available through the various economic development plans executed between 1954 and 1960.

Agriculture and Livestock. — The total area of the territory — about 461,000 square kilometres — is *roughly divided* as follows: 18,100,000 hectares (39%) unusable; 20,000,000 hectares (44%) suitable for livestock and breeding; 8,000,000 hectares suitable for agriculture. There is, therefore, a great deal of land which cannot be used and about 44% of the territory used for livestock breeding has but little pastureland while water resources are scarce and wells far apart. The 80,000 square kilometres that can be used for farming are also spread out over a large area (the northern localities, with the exception of the basins of the Juba and Webi Shebeli rivers, receive but little rainfall). The projects drafted for the strengthening of economic resources, therefore, were generally limited to a number of schemes of which details follow.

To *facilitate breeding*, the authorities planned 200 shallow and 300 deep wells and, by the time independence was granted, 109 and 135 respectively of these were in use; many others had been dug but water was not discovered. Those which could be used provided sufficient water for 300,000 head of cattle but it was then decided to build eight reservoirs and channel water from the rivers and when the task was completed there were sufficient supplies for 950,000.

(1) Refer: *Somalia under Italian Administration, Part I*, Vol. XI, No. 6, pp. 4127-34.

This increase in water resources enabled livestock owners to limit their normal movements to more restricted areas and, with the introduction of suitable prophylactic measures (injections and inspection of cattle and other animals), led to a considerable increase in the size and quality of herds during 1954/55. Today, in spite of wider consumption and higher exports, the figures shown in the following chart have been far surpassed.

	No. at 31-12-1954	No. 1955
Cattle	842,000	911,000
Dromedaries	1,300,000	1,412,000
Goats	2,917,000	3,938,000
Sheep	643,000	875,000
Donkeys.....	19,000	22,000

In 1955, livestock provided an income of 87,000,000 somalos (1), while estimates for 1958 were 100 million.

A great deal has been done to strengthen *agriculture*. River water has been used for irrigation and reservoirs built to collect rain water. The construction of many kilometres of banking, the building of numerous barrages and canals and channels enabled 103,000 hectares of hitherto unproductive land to be reclaimed, with an investment of 270 somalos per hectare permitting an increase in income per hectare of 200 somalos per annum. Approximately 150,000 inhabitants, mostly dependent upon pasture for their livelihood, felt the benefits immediately.

Table I - LAND RECLAMATION IN SOMALIA

REGION	Canals		Banking		Water contrl and deviation					Model farms and Rural Communities No.	Experimental farms and training centres	Reclaimed Land. (hectares)
	Metres	Cu. metres	Metres	Cu. metres	Sluices	Water hole	Dams and Weirs	Bridges	Reservoirs for Agr. livestock			
Hiran												
Interfluvial:	21,380	140,350	10,150	60,990	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,550
Local type agricul-	92,980	379,260	—	—	40	90	—	1	1	111	8	9,365
tural Communities												
Central and lower	142,850	3,182,820	161,370	1,457,680	168	—	22	35	5	2	—	57,217
Webi Shebeli												
Central and lower	10,865	258,950	31,657	1,047,240	12	—	1	5	2	—	—	35,535
Juba												
<i>Total</i>	267,375	3,961,380	203,177	2,565,910	224	90	23	41	8	113	8	103,667

(1) Local currency.

Table I gives details of the chief projects that have been carried out, the number of farm, reservoirs and experimental farms, land reclaimed, etc., according to regions.

As far as farms run by Italians are concerned, no additional land was added to them but, during the period of the trusteeship, concentrated investments led to a very definite rise in production, particularly in bananas which are one of the chief export items. By keeping the two types of agrarian economy quite independent of one another, basic projects and new investments permitted increases in income as follows (in million somalos).

Land Economy	1955	1958
a) Agriculture	46	55
b) Forests, woodland	5	8
Monetary Economy	40	45

These results were obtained through the investments set out below (in million somalos).

	<i>Livestock</i>	<i>Agriculture</i>
Non-lucrative (projects and experts)	1	4
For infrastructure (sluices, reservoirs, silos, material)	1	3
Productive	22	20
TOTAL	24	27

Although the above brought about overall increases in agricultural production, much help was also provided by phytopathological research which helped to reduce damage done by parasites to cereals, cotton and bananas. Experiments were also carried out with the above to see whether they could be grown in arid belts and trials were also made with ground nuts and sesame. A number of Somali were trained to carry on this work. Much help was also obtained through the construction of modern silos in the cereal-growing belts (Afgoi, Margherita) to replace the Somali system of burying wheat and other crops in the ground. In this way was it was possible to build up stocks amounting to 22,000 quintals, useful to the producer, to the consumer and to price control.

Artisan Trades and Industry. — Since these are two branches which are not by any means the main pillars of Somali economy, the investments of the administering authority were somewhat lower but, compared with those made in agriculture, communications and

other economic and social branches, they did prove to be an incentive for private circles. Large sums were invested in power stations and the electrical network, the output of sugar refineries was increased and the hides and leather industry was strengthened. Table II gives a partial summary of private investments carried out in conjunction with the execution of the administering authority's development plans over the period 1954/60.

Table II - PRIVATE INVESTMENTS IN INDUSTRY
(thousand somalos)

INDUSTRIAL BRANCH	Investments		INDUSTRIAL BRANCH	Investments	
	Calculated for 1954-60	Total at December 31-1959		Calculated for 1954-60	Total at December 31-1959
Sugar	3,000	9,932	Tinned meats	2,000	1,560
Cotton	5,000	—	Fuel Stocks	5,000	9,834
Fishing, fish oil, etc.	3,000	2,548	Sundry	1,000	14,640
Hides and Leather	4,000	2,300			
			<i>Total</i>	23,000	40,814

If calculations were made of the industrial and commercial investments made during the ten years of the trusteeship, the total would reach several hundred million somalos.

Trade, Roads and Communications. — The question of roads was considered strictly in relation to local needs. The main task was to assure that goods could be transported from the production point to the chief consumer centres and the ports handling imports and exports (Mogadiscio, Merca and Kismayu). This was done and the roads could even be used during the two rainy seasons. When the Italian trusteeship came to an end, the road network was as described in Table III.

Table III - SOMALI ROAD NETWORK

TYPE OF ROAD	Km.	Repaired at Regular Intervals Km.	TYPE OF ROAD	Km.	Repaired at Regular Intervals Km.
Asphalt roads	620	418	2nd. class (repaired by hand)	3,900	3,900
Hard core roads	63	63	3rd. class (occasional repairs)	5,000	—
1st. class roads (repaired mechanically)	664	664	<i>Total</i>	10,247	5,045

The network itself was created and kept efficient by means of several important projects that cost about 18 million somalos in

allocations from the budget and 25 million somalos from special funds set aside for development schemes.

Good motorways and a growth in passenger and goods traffic brought about a gradual increase in transport and, by the end of 1959, many Somali citizens were owners of vehicles. Between 1950 and 1959, private vehicles rose from 751 to 2,472 and commercial vehicles and public buses from 2,714 to 3,388.

The *merchant marine* also made progress, the number of vessels (including sail and fishing vessels) increasing from 165 to 326 for a total of 7,468 gross tons although tramping, which meets fierce competition from land transportation, did not progress to any great extent. There was a marked expansion in cargo traffic but passenger traffic did not rise at the same rate since preference is given air lines.

Table IV - SHIPPING

	Arrivals		Departures	
	1951 No.	1959 No.	1951 No.	1959 No.
No. of vessels	635	720	637	660
Net tonnage (thousand tons)	396	588	393	575
Cargo unloaded (thousand tons) ..	53	65	40	159
Passengers (No.)	1,764	2,037	4,258	1,662

The contraction in the number of passengers embarked and disembarked is the direct result of heavier *air traffic*, details of which are shown in the following table (Mogadiscio) for the two twelve month periods under consideration.

Table V - MOGADISCIO AIR TERMINAL. TRAFFIC IN 1951 AND 1959

	1951		1959	
	Arrivals	Departures	Arrivals	Departures
Aircraft	199	199	461	463
Passengers	1,166	1,255	2,830	2,935
Mail	47	48	121	60
Freight	1,076	672	3,064	1,302

Domestic services cover many localities and, apart from the airport mentioned, there are 16 landing grounds and strips between the Gulf of Aden and Kismayu.

Schemes concerning seaports and airports called for investments

of 7 million somalos under ordinary budget allocations and about 9 million from special funds voted for development projects.

Table VI gives details of *posts* and *telecommunications*.

Table VI - POSTS, TELECOMMUNICATIONS AND TELEPHONES
(1951 and 1959)

	1951	1959		April 1950	December 1959
Letters No.	1,372,240	1,584,545	Urban telephone net-		
Parcels No.	9,670	12,710	work Km.	300	1,458
Postal Orders No.	77,424	82,989	Inter-urban telephone		
Postal Orders - Somalos	105,764,000	112,164,000	network Km.	387	608
Telegrams received and			Telephone Subscribers:		
despatched..... No.	222,282	278,810	Urban No.	268	838
			Interurban..... No.	38	149
			Party Line No.	134	558

When interpreting the data in Table VI it should not be forgotten that, between 1951 and 1959, the Italian population — which played a leading role in all economic activities — contracted from 9,000 to less than 2,000. In all, investments in all branches of communications totalled 49.5 million somalos.

Economic and Social Schemes. — Various projects were introduced as far as towns and cities were concerned and many new improvements and construction projects were executed as a necessary accompaniment to the growth of local government and urban development. The administering authority was essentially interested in raising the moral and material conditions of the population and ordinary allocations from the budget covered the building of new homes, offices, markets, mosques and various collective services. Under the general economic development scheme, a great deal was done in the way of repairing and building roads and streets, modernizing housing and providing sufficient water supplies in such cities as Mogadiscio, Baidoa, Merca, Kismayu. Several markets, mosques, slaughterhouses and warehouses were built at Galcaio, Baidoa, Belet Uen, Obbia and Gardo and municipal electricity supplies were improved. The following figures give some idea of the amount of work achieved:

building (markets, slaughterhouse, etc.), from 1950 to 1959 . . . So.	13,593,524
repairs and modifications to urban districts, electrical supplies, etc., from 1956 to 1959 So.	2,867,561
projects undertaken by the Mogadiscio Municipal Council . . . So.	860,329
Total So.	17,321,414

Public investments proved to be an incentive to private circles which, between 1956 and 1959, invested So. 13,752,700

divided as under:

town planning			
timber houses	No.	4,056 costing So.	2,880,000
brick and timber houses	No.	450 costing So.	1,123,000
brick houses	No.	81 costing So.	6,133,000
in other districts of the cities - housing . . .	No.	235 costing So.	7,609,700

Trade and the Balance of Payments. — Because of its geographical position and its economic traditions, Somalia had for centuries purchased basic products (tea, dates, textiles, rice, spices, dyes, mineral oils, etc.), from nearby markets where favourable conditions reigned. But the country possessed no foreign currency. This meant that the authorities had to direct trade towards those markets offering the best possible conditions, *first* among them being Italy which could absorb larger quantities of bananas and also help Somali economy by converting the lire account of the balance of payments into pounds sterling and other currencies with which the most urgently needed foreign products could be purchased. Liberalization of trade proved to be an extremely useful and rewarding policy and since this was introduced while the living conditions of the population were steadily improving and production and productivity were rising, foreign trade expanded strongly between 1950 and 1959, as will be seen in Table VII.

Table VII - SPECIAL TRADE

YEAR	Imports		Exports	
	Quintals (thousand)	Million Somalos	Quintals (thousand)	Million Somalos
1950.....	372	54.3	341	25.3
1951.....	504	95.4	351	30.3
1952.....	504	105.2	498	46.6
1953.....	427	78.6	462	34.7
1954.....	471	81.9	568	62.3
1955.....	570	100.8	649	73.8
1956.....	629	114.9	640	65.0
1957.....	540	116.8	820	76.7
1958.....	629	101.6	1,025	95.5
1959.....	831	131.2	1,135	105.8

During the period in question, Italy was the chief buyer of Somali products (57% of volume and 50% of value), followed by the Arab states as far as overall trade exchange was concerned.

But perhaps the most outstanding aspect of the dynamics of Somali foreign trade was the structural changes that took place, as shown in the following table.

Table VIII - SPECIAL TRADE - PERCENTAGE VALUES

PRODUCT	1950	1951	1952	1953	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959
Imports										
Foodstuffs, beverages, tobacco, fats.	34.0	34.0	28.1	30.7	29.4	25.8	23.3	18.6	23.0	24.9
Sundry consumer items	32.5	24.7	31.5	26.7	23.4	22.9	19.0	22.1	28.8	23.0
Products for agriculture, industry and artisan trades	24.5	27.9	23.2	25.4	30.3	28.4	29.3	27.7	33.0	28.1
Durable goods and vehicles	9.0	13.4	17.2	17.2	16.9	22.9	28.4	31.6	15.2	24.0
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Exports										
Foodstuffs, beverages, tobacco, fats.	45.5	40.9	41.3	53.2	78.9	77.7	69.7	78.4	81.2	75.8
Sundry consumer items	6.9	5.6	2.1	1.1	0.4	1.1	1.6	1.6	0.8	1.5
Products for agriculture, industry and artisan trades	45.9	49.7	52.8	41.2	18.4	18.4	18.4	19.1	17.3	21.9
Durables goods and vehicles	1.7	3.8	3.8	4.5	2.3	3.2	0.8	0.9	0.7	0.8
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

The structural modifications in the two-way trade are evident and reflect corresponding changes in production, economic branches and consumption. Imports of consumer goods (items I and II) underwent a contraction, while durable goods and products for production purposes (items III and IV) showed a marked expansion. As far as exports are concerned, there was a rise in edible products but a drop in products for agriculture, industry and the artisan trades (item III), including hides and leather. At the same time, there was a contraction in exports of consumer goods (item II) as a result of better living conditions.

Improvements in foreign trade, as well as the structural modifications which took place, were reflected in the balance of payments which also benefitted from contributions from Italy and monetary transfers by the United States to be used in financing various economic and social projects and oil prospecting. There were also the remittances of foreign workers and businessmen resident in Somalia.

The Italian Minister for Foreign Affairs, in presenting the « green paper » to Parliament, commented that « the balance of payments always shows a surplus in the lira and dollar areas but reveals a deficit in the sterling area ». The merchandise account, however, contributed a great deal to such a surplus. Italy is Somalia's

Table IX - BALANCE OF PAYMENTS (*million somalos*)

YEAR	Total		Foreign Currency					
			Lire		Dollars		Sterling	
	Balance	Merchandise a/c	Total	Merchandise a/c	Total	Merchandise a/c	Total	Merchandise a/c
1951.....	— 13.5	— 38.1	+ 27.4	+ 1.4	+ 1.7	+ 0.9	— 42.7	— 40.1
1952.....	— 10.3	— 25.7	+ 29.0	+ 13.4	— 0.1	— 0.6	— 39.2	— 38.5
1953.....	+ 12.5	— 16.1	+ 44.5	+ 14.1	+ 2.7	+ 1.4	— 34.7	— 31.6
1954.....	+ 15.8	— 12.7	+ 40.0	+ 14.6	+ 4.5	+ 2.3	— 28.7	— 29.7
1955.....	+ 11.1	— 16.8	+ 52.3	+ 16.2	+ 6.8	+ 2.8	— 47.9	— 35.9
1956.....	— 13.9	— 27.0	+ 11.9	+ 5.4	+ 10.9	+ 4.3	— 36.6	— 36.8
1957.....	+ 7.4	— 20.8	+ 22.8	+ 6.2	+ 14.2	+ 2.9	— 29.6	— 29.9
1958.....	— 6.4	— 8.3	+ 1.8	+ 16.6	+ 17.2	+ 1.2	— 25.4	— 26.1
1959.....	+ 4.4	— 9.9	+ 14.0	+ 15.8	+ 17.6	+ 6.3	— 29.5	— 32.1

chief client, absorbing nearly the whole of the crop of bananas and most of the hides, tunny and tinned meats; the United States, on the other hand, is chiefly interested in skins, leopard in particular. The deficit in the sterling account is mainly the result of the situation of the merchandise account and is closely related to the purchase of motor spirit, foodstuffs and textiles manufactured in the East, as well as other products that have always been part of traditional trade exchange between the Arab and African states.

Banking and Credit. — Private enterprise and public organs receive considerable help from the banks. The Mogadiscio branches of the Bank of Rome and the Bank of Naples have been issuing loans over a long period while the branch of the Bank of Italy has been responsible for rediscount and supervision of loans and mortgages. Under the administering authority it became the backer of monetary circulation in Somalia (with its head office in Rome) and replaced the East African shilling with the somalo, the equivalent of 0.124412 grams of fine gold. But the country really needed its own independent banking organization so that the population could accustom itself to using loans and credit as a means of furthering economic development. To this end, the « *Credito somalo* », a public body, was founded in February 1954 and this soon formed a working capital of over 7.5 million somalos. The « *Credito somalo* » was chiefly interested in local farmers and growers who were unable to provide proper guarantees to other banks on the basis of the regulations governing such transactions. From the time the « *Credito somalo* » came into being, up to December 31 (68 months), about 13,000 requests for loans from farmers were dealt with and approved and the money was invested in various ways in schemes affecting 100,000

hectares of land. The operations conducted by the « Credito somalo » over the period in question are given in detail in the following table.

Table X - THE « CREDITO SOMALO » - OPERATIONS
AND TRANSACTIONS

CATEGORY OF LOAN	No. of Transactions	Thousand Somalos	CATEGORY OF LOAN	No. of Transactions	Thousand Somalos
Agriculture (affecting 99,273 hectares of arable land)...	12,929	4,590	Medium- and long-term credit (non-public)	1	586
Artisan trades	176	1,221	Public departments (Decree No. 93 of August 4, 1958)	12	12,450
Fishing industry	103	433	Semi-public agencies (agricultural and social schemes)	3	1,600
Ordinary loans	474	13,466			
Mortgages	4	250			
Incentives	219	5,015			
Building (non-public)	43	1,379	<i>Total</i>	13,964	40,990

A savings campaign was started more recently and, by the end of 1959, private deposits had reached 6 million somalos and public deposits about 4.6 million somalos. Although such figures may not seem very large, they do show that the Somali people are becoming accustomed to the idea of savings and are ready to use the banks as a medium (overcoming the old tradition that dictated that money should not produce interest).

The fact that the country was rapidly approaching independence meant that an independent banking system was necessary. On April 6, 1959, the Somalia Monetary Circulation Fund transformed its Mogadiscio branch into its head office and took over from the branch of the Bank of Italy (which wound up its business). A law of June 30, 1960, authorized the opening of the Somali National Bank which then took over from the Somalia Monetary Circulation Fund which terminated all its operations. This bank was then split into two different sections, one dealing with normal banking business, the other specializing in the issue of loans and credit. In this way, Somalia achieved independence with a fairly complete banking system which could satisfy the needs of the country, and with a currency circulation proportionate to the requirements of trade and totally covered by reserves.

Summary of Investments. — Investments were made in all economic branches. Particulars of those made with the ordinary allocations voted from the budget of the administering authority, to which must be added those of the Somali Government from 1956 onwards, are to be seen in Table XI.

Table XI - INVESTMENTS 1950-59

CATEGORY	Non-lucrative or social	Basic or infrastructure	Repairs and maintenance	Total
Roads.....	—	9,488,296	8,344,172	17,832,468
Airports	—	756,205	467,263	1,223,468
Sea ports	—	3,260,000	1,794,995	5,054,995
Lighthouses and beacons	100,000	—	580,000	680,000
Village wells and water supplies ..	—	443,900	4,089,500	4,533,400
Water control	—	1,990,918	1,913,662	3,904,580
Powerhouses, electricity supplies, work shops and their maintenance	8,160,726	—	5,432,798	13,593,524
Building (public health).....	7,170,650	4,226,000	11,000,835	15,226,835
Construction of prisons	2,020,350	—	2,253,811	9,424,461
Schools	10,251,085	—	642,614	2,662,964
			2,016,889	12,267,974
<i>Total</i>	27,702,811	20,165,319	38,536,539	86,404,669

Table XII gives details of various economic development schemes which were carried out with the assistance of the administering authority, the Agency for the Economic Development of Somalia, U.S.O.M., the Banana Exporters Cooperatives, the municipal authorities and the Somalia Development Fund (this employed funds provided by the administering authority and aid received from the United States).

Table XII - PROJECTS EXECUTED UNDER THE ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES

CATEGORY OF INVESTMENT	Forecast for seven years (1954-1960) Somalos	Investments up to December 31, 1959			% of forecast (so.)
		Non-lucrative or social (so.)	Basic or Infra-structure (so.)	Productive (so.)	
Agriculture	30,509,714	4,050,485	2,927,113	19,925,430	88.1
Livestock and Breeding.....	24,071,428	1,141,988	1,143,172	21,550,435	99.0
Communications	30,580,000	50,000	24,328,727	325,093	81.1
Urban planning and Building	7,000,000	6,133,000	3,727,890	—	140.8
Artisan Trades.....	420,000	—	—	217,599	52.0
Industry	23,700,000	—	—	29,108,837	122.8
Commerce	2,100,000	—	—	1,539,505	73.0
Loans and Credit	5,900,000	—	—	7,536,547	127.7
Technical Training	—	1,329,390	—	—	—
<i>Total</i>	124,281,142	12,704,863	32,236,906	80,203,446	100.7

The importance of investments in social schemes will be seen immediately for these relate to improvements and building in the major towns, better sanitary and health services, the construction of prisons and more schools. Investments in infrastructure, as well as repairs and maintenance, have assured easier circulation of goods and persons and communications between the latter. Attention must

also be drawn to the financial aspect of such investments, represented by capital placed at the disposal of producers and entrepreneurs and the economic and social repercussions they have had in the labour market since they have permitted employment of large numbers of Somali citizens, many of whom have been able to benefit from vocational and technological training. Between 1950 and 1959, budget allocations were used to finance schemes that called for 8 million working days, two million of which referred to tradesmen, while investments made in development plans launched between 1955 and 1959 permitted Somali workers 6 million days employment, more than one million of which by specialized manpower.

Income and Aid Furnished by Italy. — The importance of national income to the correct drafting of a budget made it necessary to modify and correct the methods and limits of direct and indirect taxation and this was done on the basis of more widely distributed fiscal pressure. The rise in income and the structural modifications carried out are to be seen in the following table.

Table XIII - NATIONAL INCOME AND STRUCTURAL MODIFICATIONS

INCOME	Income first 12 month financial year (1950-51) (so.)	Income from 1959 financial year	Forecast for 1960 financial year (so.)
Exchequer.....	240,002	570,581	930,000
Income Tax	1,060,997	9,217,745	10,000,000
Business Tax	3,389,427	3,775,898	5,215,000
Customs Duty and manufacturing tax:			
1. import duties (a) and warehouse charges	17,247,486	23,028,469	24,730,000
2. export duties		6,057,098	6,450,000
3. manufacturing tax.....		7,647,257	7,670,000
Income from monopolies	5,078,775	7,226,708	7,680,000
Postal, radiotelegraphic and telephones.....	1,759,439	3,821,700	3,800,000
Seaport and airport dues	1,299,589	232,087	200,000
Income from other services:			
1. Health and Veterinary.....	273,735	1,104,544	1,550,000
2. Agriculture, prisons, publications, etc.		275,694	465,000
Sundry	1,975,998	1,883,950	2,740,000
<i>Total</i>	32,325,448	64,841,731	71,430,000

(a) including duty on fuels and additional tax on flour.

Income more than doubled between 1951 and 1959 and an analysis of the figures shows the results of an indirect tax system that is more suitable to local conditions. Income tax, however, also had a much higher proportional increase even though contributors in this category are mostly non-Somali.

GROWTH OF INDUSTRY AND COMMERCE IN THE PAST TEN YEARS

Italian Economy Changing from wholly Agricultural Structure

The Central Institute of Statistics has recently published a report on the general census of industry and commerce made on October 16, 1961. This provides some extremely interesting information on the industrial and commercial structure of Italy, both on a national scale and according to the regions, provinces and communes (1).

One of the most outstanding aspects is the number of persons employed in industry, commerce and other associated activities. If compared to the results of earlier censuses, it points to the evolution that has taken place and the very definite trend towards livelihoods that are far removed from agriculture.

In 1951, a survey showed that 4,242,000 persons were employed in industry and 2,753,000 engaged in commerce while those in associated activities were estimated at 5,623,000, an equal rise of 33%, or a little over (Table 1).

The process of industrialization appears to be much more advanced in northern and central Italy, the labour force having grown by 36%, touching a maximum of 71% in Emilia-Romagna, 50.6% in Venetia, 44.5% in Tuscany, 40.3% in Marches and 35.8% in Lombardy.

In the southern areas, on the other hand, industry has made much slower progress since only the initial stages have been embarked upon. In ten years, industrial employees have risen by 18.8% in the mainland regions and 9.4% in the islands. Campania is the most advanced, showing a total of 270,000 persons employed in industry in 1961 and an increase of 29.8% over the past ten years. The situation is far less satisfactory in Basilicata, Calabria and Sardinia.

Territorial distribution of industrial employees is as follows: northern Italy - 69%; central Italy - 16%; southern continental and insular Italy - 15%.

Data referring to commerce and related activities reveal that there has been an almost uniform expansion in employed persons in the northern and southern regions and this confirms the statement that Italian economy is developing strongly in the tertiary activities. Of

(1) Refer also to "General Index" (Industry) included in Vol. XI, No. 6, pp. 4191-92.

each 100 persons engaged in such branches, 54 are resident in northern Italy, 20 in central Italy and 26 in southern Italy.

Table 1 - INDUSTRY AND COMMERCE, RELATED ACTIVITIES. PERSONS EMPLOYED AT 1951 AND 1961 CENSUSES

REGION	Industry			Commerce and Related Activities		
	1951	1961	% Increase	1951	1961	% Increase
Piedmont	622	788	26.7	261	330	26.4
Valle d'Aosta	18	17	— 5.6	6	8	33.3
Liguria	190	219	15.3	165	215	30.3
Lombardy	1,256	1,706	35.8	484	670	38.4
Trentino-Alto Adige	69	80	16.1	50	71	42.0
Venetia	314	473	50.6	216	285	31.9
Friuli-Venetia Julia	115	138	20.0	91	105	15.4
Emilia-Romagna	269	460	71.0	222	300	35.1
<i>North Italy</i>	<i>2,853</i>	<i>3,881</i>	<i>36.0</i>	<i>1,495</i>	<i>1,984</i>	<i>32.7</i>
Marches	82	115	40.3	61	80	31.1
Tuscany	301	435	44.5	201	269	33.8
Umbria	56	64	14.3	33	45	36.4
Latium	215	277	28.8	239	348	45.6
<i>Central Italy</i>	<i>654</i>	<i>891</i>	<i>36.2</i>	<i>534</i>	<i>742</i>	<i>39.0</i>
Campania	208	270	29.8	210	271	29.0
Abruzzi and Molise	71	80	14.3	59	78	32.2
Apulia	130	153	17.7	124	169	36.3
Basilicata	23	24	4.4	17	22	29.4
Calabria	69	68	— 1.4	64	87	35.9
<i>South Italy</i>	<i>501</i>	<i>595</i>	<i>18.8</i>	<i>474</i>	<i>627</i>	<i>32.3</i>
Sicily	165	189	14.6	194	242	24.8
Sardinia	69	67	— 2.9	56	78	39.3
<i>Insular Italy</i>	<i>234</i>	<i>256</i>	<i>9.4</i>	<i>250</i>	<i>320</i>	<i>28.0</i>
<i>Italy</i>	<i>4,242</i>	<i>5,623</i>	<i>32.6</i>	<i>2,753</i>	<i>3,673</i>	<i>33.4</i>

When comparison is made with the number of inhabitants in the main geographical divisions of the country (Table II), it appears that 172 per thousand are engaged in industry in the northern regions, 96 per thousand in the central regions, 48 per thousand in the southern regions and 42 per thousand in insular Italy. Taking southern Italy as a whole, industrial employees (46 per thousand) are slightly less than one third of the total registered for the northern and central areas (150 per thousand). On the basis of this, it may be affirmed that the degree of industrialization in the south is about one third of that of the north.

Persons employed in commerce and related activities number 88 per 1,000 inhabitants in northern Italy, 80 per 1,000 in central Italy,

50 per 1,000 in southern continental Italy and 52 per 1,000 in insular Italy. This makes an average of 85 per 1,000 for the north-central regions and 51 per 1,000 in the southern regions. If the expansion

Table II - INDUSTRY, COMMERCE AND RELATED ACTIVITIES
EMPLOYEES PER 1,000 INHABITANTS IN 1961.

A R E A	Inhabs.	Industrial Employees		Commerce and Related Activities		Total	
	(1,000's)	(1,000's)	Per 1,000 Inhabs.	(1,000's)	Per 1,000 Inhabs.	(1,000's)	Per 1,000 Inhabs.
North Italy.....	22,569	3,881	172	1,984	88	5,865	260
Central Italy	9,326	891	96	742	80	1,633	176
South Italy	12,444	595	48	627	50	1,222	98
Insular Italy	6,125	256	42	320	52	576	94
Total	60,464	5,623	111	3,673	73	9,296	184
North and Central Italy.	31,895	4,772	150	2,726	85	7,498	235
South Italy	18,569	851	46	947	51	1,798	97

in tertiary activities is quoted at 100 for the north, the figure is 60 for the south.

Considering all the persons employed in industry, commerce and related activities, the national average is 184 per 1,000 inhabitants, with 235 per 1,000 in the north and central regions and 97 per 1,000 in the south. This is equivalent to 100 employed persons in northern Italy corresponding to approximately 40 per 1,000 in the southern areas.

Preliminary figures relative to 1962 reveal that the year in question witnessed further expansion, although the rhythm was less marked from March onwards. However, the general index for industrial production rose from 216 in January to an absolute maximum of 228 in March, fell to 107 in June, but rose to 227 in July, the average for the period January-July being 217.9. The successive months revealed the normal seasonal contraction (177) but the index climbed once more in September to 220, so that the average for January-September was 213.8, the increase over the same period of 1961 being in the region of 9.8%.

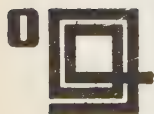
A clearer picture may be obtained by consulting the index figures (1938=100) published by the Central Institute of Statistics up to 1956 and those calculated after that year when the new base of 1953=100 was introduced. These were published by the Institute from 1957 onwards and the new base index was also employed for calculations of levels of preceding years.

**INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION - INDEX FIGURES CALCULATED
ACCORDING TO 1938 = 100 AND 1953 = 100**

YEARS	1938 = 100	1953 = 100	YEARS	1938 = 100	1953 = 100
1951	147	89	1960	297	180
1953	165	100	1961	323	196
1956	212	128	1962 (a).....	350	217,9

(a) Provisional data

The chart clearly shows that Italian industrial production during 1962 reached a level that was almost double that registered in 1953 and was at least three times as much as the output recorded in 1938.



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MODERNIZING THE ITALIAN ARMY

Gradual Improvements Made since the Second World War

Reconstruction of the Italian army after the second world war has been executed in three stages, as follows:

- a) initial employment of all surviving structure and equipment;
- b) successive efforts to reorganize on a strictly national basis;
- c) modernization and training in keeping with Italy's membership of the Atlantic Alliance.

The work of reconstruction was undoubtedly arduous, particularly during the first two stages. The restrictions imposed by the armistice and then by the Peace Treaty and a lack of funds at a critical moment imposed a policy of limited objectives and did away with any plans aimed at renewing army organization (1). In fact, at the very start, it was a question of using anything that had survived hostilities in order to build up what became known as « an army of transition » whose duties were, restricted to security.

As the domestic situation began to return to normal and world events began to give rise to some preoccupation, it became increasingly urgent to permit the Army to carry out its natural duties and to enable it to ensure the external security of the country.

The Army at the end of the Second World War

By the time the second world war came to an end, only five combat groups of the old Italian Army were still in existence.

Territorial, logistic and training units, so necessary to basic structure (recruiting, training depots and technical training schools) had either been completely destroyed or reduced to a minimum and this caused difficulties as to the future training of recruits and the creation of specialized units.

In keeping with the clauses of the Peace Treaty, there was a gradual move towards the « *army of transition* ». This included some divisions and brigades partially formed from the transformation and strengthening of combat groups that were mainly armed and equipped with British surplus and redimensioning of some infantry

(1) Refer also to " General Index " (Defence), in Vol. XI, No. 6.

regiments, among them a regiment of the Grenadiers, a regiment of the Bersaglieri and three regiments of Alpine troops.

During this period, the Army lacked armoured units, heavy and light artillery, anti-aircraft batteries an engineer corps and a signals corps.

By the Spring of 1946, eleven Recruiting Stations and Training Depots were already functioning and these, together with some technical depots, were the nucleus of the future training structure.

There were, however, many serious problems still to be settled, the principal being lack of recruiting centres, officer training schools for persons wishing to take permanent commissions and facilities for N.C.O's and tradesmen.

Another serious obstacle to compulsory military training was the absence of records since documents and files concerning mobilization and recruiting had been largely destroyed during hostilities. Officers and non-commissioned officers were still patiently waiting for decisions regarding promotion and transfer as no action had been taken since 1943.

Under such conditions, and faced with other and even more pressing problems, the authorities could do little for the Army. Money was lacking and what there was did little more than keep a tottering force from collapsing completely. This period continued until the Spring of 1947 when, as the Treaty of Peace came into force, there began a preliminary phase of recovery.

From the Peace Treaty to the Atlantic Alliance

The Treaty laid down the limitations imposed on the Army and this meant that it was then possible to start upon an organic reconstruction programme. Training had to put on a rational basis, since this stage is one of the most important in the building up of an efficient force, existing units had to be provided with an adequate structure and new ones formed, the north-eastern frontiers called for proper defences, territorial organization required overhauling and most equipment needed replacing. But the task was set upon with great tenacity and solved within the limits of the small allocations permitted until, in the Spring of 1949, Italy became a member of the Atlantic Alliance and the Army was finally able to carry out wholesale reorganization.

It may be difficult for the observer to really understand what was accomplished during the period 1947/49, but the following may help to give some idea. The more important decisions taken at the time concerned:

- reorganizing of existing training depots and schools, the building of new camps and recruiting centres and the opening of courses for tradesmen;
- strengthening of infantry divisions still in existence;
- the forming of new units, including armoured regiments, heavy artillery regiments, anti-aircraft units, engineers, radio and W/T units, etc.;
- improvements to logistics, special attention being given to transportation;
- manoeuvres for all units;
- recruiting of personnel willing to engage on a long-service basis and who could be trained for specialized units;
- adoption of new recruiting and selection methods;
- reorganization of military zones.

The achievements of the period in question enabled an efficient structure to be created and solid foundations were laid for the building up of an efficient and strong Army when the general conditions prevailing in the country had improved.

* * *

In view of the fact that the world situation was gradually worsening, the United States had opened international negotiations that, on April 4, 1949, led to the signing of the Atlantic Pact by the representatives of 8 nations, Italy included, that had approved the clauses.

Membership of the Alliance meant that Italian military policy would henceforth follow a clear-cut path and, as a consequence, the authorities were able to define the objectives that were to be reached. Much help was also given by the Allies who furnished constant supplies of arms and materials.

Strengthening of the Army now assumed a more intense rhythm for, in spite of the financial difficulties that still existed, there was great anxiety to reach the goal that had been set. At the same time, plans were made to introduce tactical training adequate to the demands for modern warfare and to bring infantry regiments to a strength suitable to employment on a wide scale. Great importance was given to the possibility of Army formations having to be used for both conventional and atomic warfare.

Although tactical problems and questions relating to divisional structure were solved, the Army authorities still faced the complete

lack of trained units to handle nuclear weapons. This matter was settled recently with the creation of various specialized units and others will be formed in the near future until such time as there are sufficient to guarantee national security.

However, the rapid changes that are taking place in military doctrine and theory mean that further modifications will most likely have to be made to the various branches of the Army and these will undoubtedly bring about modifications to training programmes and considerably alter the scheme of logistics now followed.

There is now a tendency to improve the quality, rather than the numerical consistency, of the Army as a fighting service. This means that officers must receive a highly *technical training* while most *non-commissioned officers* must become specialized in one trade or another. Furthermore, a modern Army needs numbers of *long-service troops* who must also receive technical instruction. *Infantry* must be mobile and *equipment* extremely modern and all ranks must understand the functioning and use of the many different types of weapons issued to them.

The speedy way in which the Italian Army has grown from the five combat groups of the War of Liberation points to the serious and consistent manner in which the military authorities have performed the task of reconstruction entrusted to them.

Allied aid, as far as equipment is concerned, has been decisive but due merit must be given the efforts that have been made by the country itself in the interests of a strong army. A silent but tenacious campaign of moral reconstruction has accompanied material strengthening and the results achieved have exceeded what was hoped, for Italy now feels closely united with her Army.

The Information Service of the Presidency of the Council of Ministers has published its yearbook entitled "ITALY TODAY" which furnishes particulars of the geographical, historical, political, economic, social, cultural and tourist aspects of modern Italy. Readers wishing to receive a copy should write to: Servizio delle Informazioni, Presidenza del Consiglio dei Ministri, Via Po 14, Rome Italy.

ANNUAL REPORT OF THE NATIONAL HYDROCARBONS AGENCY

Achievements in 1961-62

Information regarding the operations of the National Hydrocarbons Group is to be found in the Annual Report and Statement of Accounts 1961/62. The following gives a brief outline of the Group's chief activities during this period.

Oil and Gas Exploration and Development

Agip Mineraria and its affiliated companies undertook widespread exploration and development both in Italy and abroad, employing a considerable amount of equipment which, at April 30, 1962, included 62 plants for drilling to depths ranging between 1,000 and 6,500 metres and three mobile and two fixed platforms for offshore drilling.

In Italy, total drilling reached 308,789 metres and 145 wells, of which 66 exploratory, were completed. More than 6,667.9 million cubic metres of natural gas were produced, corresponding to 97.2% of domestic output, together with 558,117 tons of liquid and liquefiable hydrocarbons. New discoveries of natural gas, the importance of which are still not wholly known, were made in Basilicata and Sicily while more modest pockets have been found in the Valle Padana. Exploratory wells off the Adriatic coast (Romagna) give signs that they can be utilized as also those in the gasfields of Abruzzo and Basilicata and the oil fields at Gela.

Abroad, prospecting has been carried out in the concessions that the Group is working in Morocco, Tunisia, Egypt, Sudan, Somalia and Iran. At December 31, 1961, these concessions totalled 174,029 square kilometres. Oil has been discovered in Libya, in the CO.R.I. concession, but no estimates are so far available. In the United Arab Republic, where C.O.P.E. produced about 2.5 million tons of oil in its Sinai concession in 1961, a preliminary agreement was signed in November which transfers further areas to this company; the new concessions lie in the Nile delta and the Khalique El-Zeit zones and are about 26,000 and 2,000 square kilometres respectively. An agreement has been reached with the Iranian Government over commercial exploitation of the S.I.R.I.P. fields in the Persian Gulf, where oil was found in 1961. A further concession, covering about 5,200 square kilometres, has been obtained in Nigeria and

the agreement, signed in March 1962, covers the foundation of a joint company in which the Nigerian Federal Government will hold shares (the "*Nigerian Agip Oil Company*") if hydrocarbons are found in sufficient quantities to warrant commercial exploitation.

Transportation

The *methane pipeline* in Italy was prolonged and by the end of 1961 had reached a total length of 4,557 kilometres. In northern and central Italy, S.N.A.M. started on the laying of the dorsal Ferrandina-Bitetto pipeline, with branch lines running to Bari and Monopoli, and the planning of the Vasto-Rieti pipeline which will also serve Terni and Rome. Urban pipelines were also lengthened during the year in question. The construction of the central European pipeline, which started on June 25, 1961, continued satisfactorily and the first sections in the Po plain and Swiss territory were completed.

The Group's tanker fleet has been strengthened and three new tankers of 46,000 tons dwt were added and a further two launched in early 1962; one of the latter is among the largest in the world. When the new tanker construction programme is completed, the National Hydrocarbons Agency's fleet will total 472,000 tons dwt.

The Group's new project covering the building of refineries has developed steadily. Work has already begun on the A.N.I.C. refinery at San Nazzaro de' Burgondi (Pavia) which will handle 4 million tons of crude product per annum when completed, while the I.R.O.M. refinery at Porto Marghera (Venice) is being enlarged.

The S.A.M.I.R. refinery at Mohammedia (Morocco) has been completed and preliminary work has started on those to be built at Ingolstadt (Germany), Biserta (Tunisia) and Tema (Ghana). The Stuttgart area has been chosen for a second refinery to be built in Germany.

Those refineries which the Group owns, or in which it has an interest, handled 6.5 million tons of crude oil in 1961, producing 6.1 million tons of finished products.

Distribution and Roadside Marketing

On the home market, A.G.I.P. strengthened its position as regards sale of oil products, increasing its service stations, improving its commercial organization and pushing sales. Compared to 1960, there was a 30.4% rise in the total sales of petrol, 16.2% in gasoil, 19.7% in fuel oils and 30.9% in lubricating oils.

European branches of A.G.I.P. also had a successful sales year in Austria, Germany and Switzerland and service stations are about

to be opened in Great Britain. In Africa, satisfactory results were obtained in Libya, Ethiopia and Somalia and sales of oil products have already started in Morocco, Tunisia and Sudan. Service stations for roadside marketing have also been built in Ghana, Kenya, Tanganyika and Uganda and new companies have been founded in Liberia, the Ivory Coast, Togo, Dahomey, Nigeria, Camerouns and Jibuti.

Agipgas sales (liquid gases) have also increased in Italy (+ 7.1% compared to 1960) and in other countries, Argentina, Greece and Lebanon in particular.

Chemical Industry

In the *petrochemical field*, A.N.I.C. has installed new plant at Ravenna and has started construction (July 1961) of its new factory at Pisticci (Matera) which will produce products for the plastics industry, solvents and synthetic fibres. In 1961, production of rubber and fertilizers was very much higher than in 1960 while output of carbon black by Phillips Carbon Black Italian and polyvinyl chloride by the Societa Chimica Ravenna reached surprising levels. A.N.I.C. Gela continued with the construction of the petrochemical plant at Gela but production will be limited when this opens shortly. At the beginning of 1962, A.N.I.C. and S.O.F.I.D. completed a deal under which they purchased a majority share packet in Lanerossi and the former companies entry into the textile manufacturing and commercial fields will permit wider use of the synthetic fibres produced in the petrochemical plant at Pisticci.

Nuclear Energy

A.G.I.P. Nucleare continued its programme of research and, in collaboration with the National Committee for Nuclear Research, further progress was made in experiments on uranium alloys at the Ispra laboratories. The prototype of a 30 mW thermal reactor, organic liquid, cooled and moderated, is under construction and a research programme on gas-graphite reactors has been started. An Argonaut type research reactor is also being built at Bologna University while marked progress has been made in the planning and construction of the S.I.M.E.A. nuclear power station at Latina. The search for radio-active minerals in Italy has been continued by S.O.M.I.R.E.N.

Mechanical Industry - Planning and Installations

The « Nuovo Pignone » has increased production in its plants at Florence, Massa and Talamona (Sondrio) and has received some

important contracts from foreign companies. The plant at Vibo Valentia (Catanzaro) is almost completed and should start production shortly. Another plant belonging to the « Pignone Sud » at Bari will be finished before long and a new company « *Fucine Meridionale* », founded by « Nuovo Pignone » and « Finanziaria Breda » will manufacture steel and other metal and alloy products and various types of industrial machinery.

S.N.A.M. Progetti and S.A.I.P.E.M. specialize in planning, installations and drilling and considerable progress has been made by both. Apart from Italian contracts covering plant for the refining, petrochemical and nuclear industries, a great step forward has been made in agreements with foreign governments.

Persons employed by the National Hydrocarbons Group and its affiliations rose from 24,060 at the end of 1960 to 47,804 at December 31, 1961. This marked increase, apart from the employment of new personnel in Italy and abroad, is due to the recent merging of other companies with the group (11,831 persons).

The Annual Report and Statement of Accounts for 1961 reveals a considerable increase in assets which totalled 406 milliard lire. The balance sheet was closed with net profits of 6.2 milliard lire which, as per Article 22 of the Act of Establishment of the National Hydrocarbons Agency, will be assigned as follows: 4 milliard lire to the Treasury; 1.3 milliard lire for reserves; 900 million lire for scientific and technical research and technicological training.

According to data not yet officially confirmed, the National Hydrocarbons Agency achieved the following in 1962.

Companies belonging to the group completed exploration of 65 wells (28 in northern Italy, 26 in central and southern Italy and 2 in Sicily) of which 5 produced gas. Prospecting continued in those countries in which the Agency holds concessions and some results have been obtained in Egypt and Libya and the off-shore concessions in the Persian Gulf.

At November 1, 1962, the Agency's tanker fleet consisted of 13 vessels totalling 325,000 gross tons and 2 special tankers of 11,000 gross tons each, for the transportation of liquified gases.

Some interesting developments have been noted in the petrochemical industry. Between January and September 1962, the National Hydrocarbon Agency's plant at Ravenna produced 32,021 tons of cis-polybutadiene rubber, 30,684 tons of special types of rubber and latex and 682,687 tons of fertilizers of various types.

In conclusion, the nuclear reactor at Latina reached a critical phase during the last few weeks of 1962.

AGRICULTURAL AND COMMERCIAL ASPECTS OF CITRUS GROWING AND PROSPECTS UNDER THE EUROPEAN COMMON MARKET

Salient Aspects of Citrus Growing in Italy Production and Exports

Citrus growing (1) in the countries of the northern hemisphere, the United States, Central America and the Mediterranean region in particular, showed an increase in production of about 8% between 1961-1962 and 1960-61. The Mediterranean countries recovered from the setbacks of 1960-61 and there were far better harvests in Spain, Italy and Algeria.

1961-62 harvests in the western hemisphere exceeded 105 million quintals of oranges (rising from 95.9 million quintals in 1960-61 and 99.9 million quintals in 1959-60) of which 53.4 million relate to North and Central America and 42.6 million quintals to the Mediterranean region. The latter figure includes Italian production amounting to 7.9 million quintals (against 7 million quintals in 1960-61 and 7.1 million quintals in 1959-60).

Tangerines and clementines grown in 1961-62 in the same belts produced harvests exceeding 31 million quintals, of which 15.9 million quintals in the United States and 5.3 million quintals in the Mediterranean. Italy's share was 1.2 million quintals.

Lemons were estimated at 18 million quintals, the Mediterranean region accounting for 7.5 million quintals of which Italy produced about half — 3.4 million quintals (Table 1).

History and Economic Background of Citrus Growing in Italy

Because of the present weak state of citrus farming, it may be better to give some idea of the historical background of this branch of agriculture. At the beginning of the century, this typical southern enterprise was extremely prosperous because of the ease with which foreign markets could be penetrated. The lemons of the Palermo district were in demand everywhere while the oranges and tangerines of the Syracuse and Catania and other Sicilian localities were purchased without any need for publicity.

(1) See also: *Production and Export of Citrus Fruits*, Vol. III, No. 6, pp. 615-618.

Table I - WORLD CITRUS PRODUCTION IN 1959-60, 1960-61 AND 1961-62.
(thousand quintals)

CITRUS HARVESTS	1959-60	1960-61	1961-62
<i>Oranges</i>			
North and Central America	51,530	48,320	53,400
Mediterranean Area	40,850	39,060	42,600
of which Italy	7,130	7,080	7,950
Other Regions	1,400	1,400	(a) —
<i>Tangerines and Similar</i>			
United States	14,510	16,010	15,900
Mediterranean Area	5,360	5,150	5,300
of which Italy	1,180	1,150	1,180
Other Regions	7,780	8,660	(a) —
<i>Lemons</i>			
North and Central America	7,600	5,950	(a) —
Mediterranean Area	7,530	7,040	7,550
of which Italy	3,580	3,120	3,390
Other Regions	400	420	(a) —

(a) Details not yet known.

Source: FAO

Citrus fruits were, at that time, a luxury product for a rich clientele living in the wealthy nations, among them being England which was one of the most important export markets. Less perfect fruits were absorbed by the domestic market or by thriving Sicilian and Calabrian industries which used them for extracting oils and citric acid for adding to bitter oranges sold to Italian and foreign firms producing candied fruits, marmalades and oils, thus ensuring consumption of non-edible product.

Production costs for the processing of such fruits and even growing were very low because of cheap manpower both in the factories and the orchards, and the situation was dominated by a restricted number of expert traders. The fact that foreign demand was always in excess of supply brought high prices which amply repaid commerce and even permitted growers to obtain satisfactory returns.

During this very fortunate period, the only serious competitor was Spain; but that country mostly concerned itself with the rich market represented by the United States which it succeeded in monopolizing because of a sound and efficient commercial organization that was superior to that of Italy. But the situation became critical with the great American slump of 1929-32. This also affected citrus growing in Italy which was further hit by scientific and technological progress made in several other countries, Germany among them. The latter country was the first to produce synthetic citric acid and, with its low prices, succeeded in delivering a mortal blow to the Sicilian in-

dustries, mostly of an artisan or family nature, that were processing the fresh fruit.

The slump, which also had repercussions in England and throughout Europe, halted the prosperous flow of citrus exports intended for privileged nations and prices collapsed, bringing ruin to many growers and exporters. There were, at the time, the beginnings of sharp contrasts between farmers and traders, the former being very disorganized in matters concerning the safeguarding of their interests while the latter, although individualists, were extremely united as a category and well able to impose the lowest prices possible on producers.

That phase of production and sale of citrus fruits, prior to the advent of the Common Market (and prior to the American crisis) was marked by such characteristics as far greater demand than supply, the almost complete absence of any competitor as far as Italy was concerned and high earnings for both traders and growers.

Following the American crisis, Italy's position as an exporter of citrus fruits improved but worsened later, not for competitive reasons, but because of disorganized relations between farmer and exporter resulting from contrasting interests. The influences of the Italo-Ethiopian war imposed the principle of « produce only what can be sold » in order not to inflate markets that were already saturated. At the time, no one foresaw the exceptional rise in consumption and the consequent decision to produce large quantities in order to meet greater demand and that particular expansion now common to international economy.

Since the second world war, citrus growing in Italy has passed through another flourishing period which, however, was brief and has since felt the « pinch » from both old and new competitors. Spain took advantage of the war period and the subsequent commercial slow-down to renew orchards and plant excellent varieties of « *Navel* » oranges and others that would find a sure market. Israel, with its excellent agricultural planning, planted marvellous orchards on the desert sands, tending them with the utmost care and concentrating on the « *Jaffa* » orange, an excellent commercial fruit.

At the present time, Italian citrus growing enjoys a reasonably good position and even reveals some promising aspects (particularly in view of new orchards planted in the agricultural reform zones). It still has strong trade with the more important European markets but still has to face an unequal struggle with old and new competitors. Italian lemons, for example, compare badly with those of Chile, Brazil, Spain, Israel, Cyprus and Turkey. Growers in Chile and Spain have more or less won their struggle against the Italian « *verdelli* » which is not accepted because of their green spots, lack of juice and

uneven size. As far as oranges and tangerines are concerned, competing countries are too numerous for they include all those of the Mediterranean basin, headed by Spain and Israel, and even Brazil, South Africa and California, all in the lead because they have specialized in oranges with a blonde pulp, while Italy continues to grow those that range from red-black to yellow-citrine.

Present conditions in the Italian citrus industry do not, however, call for the pessimism that badly informed circles have shown. It should not be forgotten that the expansion in citrus growing in Italy is somewhat higher than the average registered for the western hemisphere. Production of oranges and tangerines between 1934 and 1960 has risen by 124%, against 90% for world production (excluding the U.R.S.S. and China) and Italy's share of world production is about 5.3%, against 4.4% in 1934. Compared to the other Mediterranean countries, Italy accounts for about 20% of production against 17% in 1934.

Growing

Table II gives an idea of the primary orchards in Italy. The major region for oranges, tangerines and lemons is Sicily, where 25,000, 4,250 and 20,250 hectares respectively are planted. The next most important area is Calabria where oranges are mostly grown over 14,000 hectares, followed by Latium (4,860 hectares), Campania (3,965

Table II - PRIMARY ORANGE, TANGERINE AND LEMON ORCHARDS
IN 1960. (*Area in Hectares*)

Oranges		Tangerines		Lemons	
<i>Sicily</i>	25,000	<i>Sicily</i>	4,250	<i>Sicily</i>	20,250
of which:		of which:		of which:	
Syracuse.....	8,050	Palermo	2,230	Catania	6,135
Catania	7,850	Catania	1,395	Messina	6,090
Messina	2,050			Palermo	4,760
<i>Calabria</i>	13,950	<i>Apulia</i>	980	Syracuse.....	3,060
of which:		of which:		<i>Campania</i>	1,045
Reggio Calabria	10,450	Taranto	835	of which:	
<i>Latium</i>	4,860	<i>Calabria</i>	250	Salerno	620
of which:		of which:		Naples	425
Latina	4,860	Reggio Calabria	185	<i>Calabria</i>	415
<i>Campania</i>	3,965	<i>Campania</i>	245	of which:	
of which:		of which:		Reggio Calabria	310
Salerno	2,410	Naples	160		
<i>Sardinia</i>	1,160				
of which:					
Cagliari	990				
<i>ITALY</i>	51,000	<i>ITALY</i>	5,750	<i>ITALY</i>	21,900

hectares). Sicily again heads the list for lemons, followed by Cambría. The largest producer of tangerines, after Sicily, is Apulia with 980 hectares). Sicily again heads the list for lemons, followed by Campania (1,045 hectares) and Calabria (415 hectares).

The chief provinces specializing in orange growing are: Reggio Calabria which has orchards over 10,450 hectares, more than any in Sicily, Syracuse (8,050 hectares), Catania (7,850), Latina (4,860), Salerno (2,410), Messina (2,050) and Cagliari (990 hectares).

Palermo, with 2,230 hectares grows the largest quantities of tangerines, followed by Catania (1,395 hectares), Taranto (835) and small areas in Calabria and Campania.

Catania and Messina (6,130 and 6,090 hectares respectively) hold the primate for lemon growing, followed by Palermo (4,760 hectares), Syracuse (3,060), Salerno and Naples.

Table III shows production figures for the various provinces with average crops per hectare. Syracuse leads with oranges — high quality varieties — producing 246.6 quintals per hectare, followed by Matera (215.3), Imperia (199.4) and Salerno (193.3).

Table III - CITRUS HARVESTS PER PROVINCE AND AVERAGE YIELD
(*quintals per hectare*)

Oranges		Tangerines		Lemons	
Syracuse.....	246.6	Syracuse.....	226.4	Syracuse.....	264.4
Matera	215.3	Ragusa	207.3	Imperia	251.0
Imperia	199.4	Brindisi	151.4	Salerno	239.7
Salerno	193.3	Enna	142.0	Reggio Calabria	214.3
Naples	189.1	Messina	138.5	Trapani	170.1
Chieti	180.0	Catania	135.8	Catania	160.1
Enna	171.7	Naples	129.0	Naples	152.3
Ragusa	170.2	Imperia	128.6	Palermo	149.3
Trapani	146.0	Palermo	125.5	Brindisi	130.2
Lecce	143.5	Taranto	108.2	Foggia	118.5
Catania	141.4	Caserta	99.2	Agrigento	117.2
Nuoro.....	139.0	Reggio Calabria	86.0	Lecce	115.2

Source: ISTAT

Certain of the classic citrus growing areas, such as Catania, are relatively low on the list of yield per hectare (141.4 = 11th. place) and this points to weaknesses in growing methods and possible unsuitable trees. The Syracuse area produces the largest yield per hectare for tangerines (226.4) and this also coincides with a high quality fruit. This province is followed by Ragusa (207.3), Brindisi (151.4) and Enna (142.0). Syracuse again heads the list for lemons with 264.4 quintals per hectare, followed by Imperia (251.0), Salerno (239.7) and Reggio Calabria (214.3). Once again, it may be noted that more important districts of Sicily, the Palermo area in particular, have a low yield.

Table IV - CITRUS FRUITS PERCENTAGE PRODUCTION PER
MAIN GEOGRAPHICAL DIVISION

	North	Central	South	Insular	ITALY
Oranges	0.22	4.68	37.98	57.12	100.00
Tangerines	0.88	1.08	30.84	67.20	100.00
Lemons	0.65	0.21	12.51	86.63	100.00

In general, Italy has concentrated its citrus growing in the islands — Sicily in particular — which produce 57.12% of the orange crop, 67.2% of the tangerine crop and 86.63 of the lemon crop. The southern regions follow with 37.98% of the orange crop, 30.84% of the tangerine crop and 12.51% of the lemon crop.

* * *

The bergamot, a citrus fruit for industrial use, is grown almost exclusively in Calabria. It has been grown for almost three centuries along an eighty kilometre strip on the southern coast of the Reggio area, over an area of more than 3,200 hectares. There has been a slight trend towards extending orchards during the past ten years but this is mainly the result of replacing lemon orchards destroyed by drought.

Definite improvements have appeared in the way the trees are tended but most of those in the Calabrian area are extremely old. Great attention must be paid by growers, particularly as regards pruning and the excessive use of manures and fertilizers. More potassium fertilizers are needed which will furnish the trees with those substances necessary to the formation of the oil.

During the past few years, the bergamot harvest in Calabria has been in the region of 360-370,000 quintals of fruit which has permitted an oil yield of 170-180,000 kilograms.

Table V records figures for the bergamot and other « minor citrus products » over the period 1958-1960.

Table V - BERGAMOT AND OTHER MINOR CITRUS FRUITS 1958-60
Production in Quintals

PRODUCT	1958	1959	1960
Bergamot	289,090	369,700	360,000
Lime	37,440	37,800	37,000
Limette (sweet lemons for oil).....	1,640	2,630	2,000
Chinotto.....	480	370	380

Source: ISTAT

Commerce

Marketing of citrus is divided into two distinct branches — sales by growers and sales to domestic and foreign markets. Traditional systems, weighed down by out-dated habits, reveal many faults and there is still a lack of cooperative associations of growers and sellers and processing plants.

Table VI - CITRUS FRUITS - PRODUCTION IN 1959-61 AND COMPARISON WITH 1930-39 (in thousand quintals)

	Average 1934-38	Average 1959-61	% diff.	Years		
				1959	1960	1961
Oranges	3,327	7,387	(+ 122 %)	7,130	7,080	7,950
Tangerines	560	1,170	(+ 109 %)	1,180	1,150	1,180
Lemons	3,423	3,363	(0.98 %)	3,580	3,120	3,390
<i>Total</i>	7,310	11,820	(+ 62 %)	11,890	11,350	12,520

In Calabria, sales of the bergamot is in the hands of an *ad hoc* consortium which, founded prior to the war, still seems to prove advantageous. Market problems have been solved through a collective stocks system and sales on behalf of growers, the organization receiving no profits and operating like a real cooperative movement. Consumer markets are very satisfied with this system since its guarantees a fair price, a genuine product and safeguards against indiscriminate oscillations in quotations. Italian exporters collaborate with the organization under a national economic agreement stipulated some time ago.

Table VII - GROSS SALEABLE PRODUCT IN 1952-56 AND 1957-61.
(million lire)

Y E A R	Oranges	Tangerines	Lemons	Total
1952	29,929	4,506	23,032	57,467
1953	31,031	5,587	22,852	58,470
1954	30,284	5,227	22,873	58,384
1955	28,107	6,202	25,604	59,913
1956	31,052	7,997	26,974	66,003
<i>Average 1952-56</i>	—	—	—	60,047
1957	37,499	8,538	32,549	78,586
1958	35,237	6,892	19,136	61,265
1959	37,094	6,407	21,534	65,035
1960	35,870	5,947	18,795	60,612
1961	(a) —	(a) —	(a) —	(b) 65,000
<i>Average 1957-61</i>	—	—	—	66,079

(a) Definite data missing. — (b) Approximate figures

Source: ISTAT

Tables VI and VII show that gross saleable product and the quantities offered the market have expanded sharply. Oranges grown during the three year period 1959-61 reached a level that was 122% above that registered in 1934-38 while tangerines have risen by 109% over the same period. Only lemons, which have suffered from drought, have shown a contraction.

Table VIII shows the various qualities and varieties of citrus fruits, with wholesale prices practised in various areas.

Table VIII - WHOLESALE PRICES FOR LOCAL QUALITIES OF ORANGES, TANGERINES AND LEMONS (*lire per quintal*)

Oranges		Tangerines		Lemons	
<i>Catania</i>		<i>Reggio Calabria</i>		<i>Salerno</i>	
Sanguinelle di montagna	7,885	Nostrani.....	7,085	1st. Quality	13,335
<i>Cagliari</i>		<i>Catania</i>		<i>Foggia</i>	
Vainiglie.....	6,850	Comuni di montagna	6,585	Comuni	10,585
<i>Reggio Calabria</i>		<i>Palermo</i>		<i>Reggio Calabria</i>	
Dolci Jonio	6,105	Good 1st. Qual.	6,275	(bulk)	9,480
<i>Syracuse</i>		<i>Syracuse</i>		<i>Latina</i>	
Bionde	5,500	Comuni	6,000	Formia	9,325
<i>Catania</i>				<i>Palermo</i>	
Bionde di montagna ..	4,950			1st. Quality	9,020
<i>Salerno</i>					
1st. Quality	4,475				
<i>Palermo</i>					
1st. Quality	4,445				
<i>Messina</i>					
Bionde	4,300				

The much-prized « Sanguinelli di montagna » oranges of the Catania area fetch as much as 7,900/8,000 lire per quintal, while the « bionde di Messina » — although grown in the same area — are worth little more than half. The lemons of the Salerno locality, although grown much farther north than the Sicilian variety, are quoted at 13,300-13,400 lire per quintal, against 9,000/9,500 lire per quintal for the famous Palermo variety, a difference of 4,300/4,350 lire for a similar product. The differences may be explained by the fact that *certain belts still retain the fame they reached during the boom period at the beginning of the century when fruit from Salerno was sent to England and elsewhere.*

Table IX gives an idea of foreign exports for the periods 1957-58, 1958-59 and. 1959-60. Considering the dynamics of increase in exports and contractions of a physical nature (due to smaller crops), exports are growing in spite of local problems and should reach 5/5.5 million quintals by 1965. This figure should be obtained with ease in spite of the growing pressure from other countries, particu-

Table IX - CITRUS FRUITS. EXPORT REGIONS 1957-58, 1958-59
AND 1959-60.

	1957-58	1958-59	1959-60
<i>Sicily</i>	3,406,704	4,230,493	3,964,258
of which:			
Oranges	1,189,367	1,162,709	1,229,182
Tangerines	441,179	514,725	477,717
Lemons	1,776,158	2,553,059	2,257,359
<i>Calabria</i>	521,458	464,414	508,496
of which:			
Oranges	480,653	387,729	425,335
Tangerines	21,861	41,993	34,208
Lemons	18,944	34,692	48,953
<i>Latium</i>	63,103	61,062	52,754
of which:			
Oranges	63,103	60,778	52,648
Tangerines	—	284	106
Lemons	—	—	—
<i>Campania</i>	55,162	57,515	73,421
of which:			
Oranges	54,170	52,535	72,044
Tangerines	139	1,049	96
Lemons	853	3,931	1,281
<i>Apulia</i>	3,975	10,932	11,096
of which:			
Oranges	595	334	225
Tangerines	2,910	8,585	9,792
Lemons	470	2,013	1,079
<i>Other Regions</i>	22,267	16,567	15,895
of which:			
Oranges	15,267	10,229	9,138
Tangerines	2,165	2,191	2,146
Lemons	4,835	4,147	4,611
<i>Tota Italy</i>	4,072,669	4,840,983	4,625,920

larly Spain, which is the main exporter of citrus fruits in the Mediterranean, Israel, Morocco and Algeria (see Table X).

Table X - CITRUS FRUITS. EXPORTS PER MEDITERRANEAN
COUNTRY - 1960-61. (*million quintals*)

NATION	Total Citrus	Oranges and Lemons	NATION	Total Citrus	Oranges and Lemons
Spain	10,310	8,000	Lebanon	700	600
Italy	3,900	1,900	Greece	460	200
Israel	3,800	3,100	Tunisia	454	310
Morocco	3,510	3,180	Turkey	170	100
Algeria	2,177	1,540	Egypt and other countr.	140	50
Cyprus	740	600			

Importing Countries

Western Germany is Italy's chief market (see Table XI) and, in 1959, purchased 610,000 quintals of oranges, 11.1% of her total imports, estimated at 5,509,000 quintals. The situation is slightly better in the case of tangerines, the import figure being 323,000 quintals, equal to 61.6% of total imports (524,000 quintals). Lemons totalled 1,010,000 quintals, about 86% of total imports (1,174,000 quintals). Italy's position as far as oranges are concerned is not too good, the more so since Spain exported 3,180,000 quintals to the same market, equal to 57.7% of Western Germany's total imports of oranges. Morocco exported 588,000 quintals (10.7%), almost the same as Italy,

Table XI. - CITRUS FRUITS. WEST GERMAN IMPORTS FROM PRODUCER NATIONS (*in quintals*)

	1957	% of total	1958	% of total	1959	% of total
Oranges						
Spain	1,765,990	46.2	3,321,690	62.4	3,179,700	57.7
Italy	629,710	16.5	653,480	12.3	610,420	11.1
South Africa	371,760	9.7	332,600	6.3	368,910	6.7
U.S.A.	278,200	7.3	25,230	0.5	65,130	0.2
Morocco	270,610	7.1	373,680	7.0	588,190	10.7
Israel	209,590	5.5	305,040	5.7	361,330	6.5
Other Countries	296,520	7.7	312,000	5.8	335,620	6.1
<i>Total Oranges</i>	3,822,380	100.0	5,323,720	100.0	5,509,300	100.0
Tangerines						
Italy	270,370	69.9	298,610	71.8	322,730	61.6
Spain	95,650	24.7	88,290	21.2	145,940	27.8
Morocco	—	—	6,290	1.5	30,760	5.9
Algeria	—	—	2,660	0.7	12,910	2.4
Other Countries	20,930	5.4	19,980	4.8	11,980	2.3
<i>Total Tangerines</i>	386,950	100.0	415,830	100.0	524,320	100.0
Lemons						
Italy	849,890	81.7	613,190	63.8	1,010,160	86.0
U.S.A.	151,010	14.7	290,640	30.2	95,350	8.1
Spain	4,660	0.3	3,260	0.3	47,240	4.0
Greece	—	—	11,920	1.2	870	0.1
Other Countries	22,650	2.3	42,460	4.5	20,420	1.8
<i>Total Lemons</i>	1,028,210	100.0	961,470	100.0	1,174,140	100.0

while South Africa followed with 6.7% and Israel with 6.5%. Lower down the scale were several other nations including the United States.

Italian tangerines are in demand in German but there is fierce competition from other producers of this fruit and clementines, including Spain (27% of total West German imports), Morocco and Algeria.

Exports of lemons are being seriously challenged by the United States whose quota has already reached 8/9%.

About 64.8% of Austria's citrus imports are supplied by Italy, against 25.3% from Spain and varying quantities from Israel (4.5%), South Africa and Brazil. Italian lemons form 87% of the total imported by this country.

Spanish oranges and tangerines dominate the Belgium and Luxembourg markets, with a quota of 50.3% of the total imported, followed at some distance by the United States (14.3%) and Israel. Italian exports to this rich market are only about 4.9% and even lemons have lost ground since the U.S. product now covers 52.4% of the total imported by these two countries.

Italian citrus exports to Switzerland amount to about 60% of the total imported by that nation, followed by Spain with 30% and Israel. Lemons amount to about 46.6% of total Swiss imports of this fruit.

When Italian citrus growing has been placed on a more rational basis, the European Common Market should help Italy to market her oranges, tangerines and lemons in greater quantities in West Germany, Benelux, etc. There is no truth whatsoever in the statement to the effect that citrus growing in Italy has been damaged by the Common Market, particularly as far as exports are concerned. The chief problem concerns the creation of an efficient technical and commercial organization.

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AIR AND SEA TRANSPORT IN ITALY FROM 1861 TO 1960

An outline of shipping and aviation movement

At the time Italy became a united country, maritime transport obviously felt the influence of the hap-hazard manner in which the merchant fleet was formed for nothing more could be done than merge all the vessels that had originally belonged to the individual states. In order of importance, these came from the Kingdom of Sardinia, the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, Tuscany, a large part of the Papal States, with small river contingents from Lombardy and the duchies. At a later date, it was possible to add the Venetian fleet and those vessels that had not been absorbed from the Papal States and thus, towards 1870, Italy was able to form a merchant fleet of 18,000 ships (mostly of small tonnage) for a total of approximately one million gross tons.

Table I - ANNUAL SHIPPING MOVEMENT (a) (*Averages per period*)

PERIOD	Vessels Arriving and Departing		Passengers embarked and disembarked (c) (1,000's)	Cargo loaded and unloaded (d) (1,000 tons)
	No.	Tonnage (b)		
1861-70.....	225,297	16,625	1,195	...
1871-80.....	210,967	24,344	1,035	...
1881-90.....	222,999	37,833	...	12,066
1891-900.....	220,414	54,793	1,009	14,820
1901-10.....	234,509	81,722	1,635	22,013
1911-20.....	260,421	74,918	2,351	24,763
1921-30.....	441,924	123,056	8,026	31,730
1931-40.....	497,468	163,750	8,043	38,388
1941-42.....	205,161	36,370	6,652	18,032
1946-50.....	229,558	70,505	6,297	30,122
1951-55.....	270,579	133,465	7,647	54,009
1956-60.....	299,685	188,902	10,235	80,697

(a) Figures in italics refer to averages for number of years inferior to those indicated because of lack of data.

(b) In thousand gross tons.

(c) Passenger movement calculated from 1864 to 1878 and from 1895 onwards

(d) Estimates of cargo movement began in 1881.

Summarizing the periods during the century under examination, it is easy to obtain a picture of the growth that has taken place

in maritime transport and the consequent benefits to national economy. The total gross tonnage of vessels arriving and departing, the number of passengers embarked and disembarked and the quantities of cargo loaded and unloaded in Italian ports during the past five years are 1,036%, 756% and 572% respectively above the figures registered one hundred years ago, 131%, 526% and 267% above those of the beginning of the century and 15%, 27% and 110% more than those of the thirties which were by no means low.

Table II - ANNUAL INTERNATIONAL SHIPPING MOVEMENT (a)
(Averages per Period)

PERIOD	Vessels		Passengers (1,000's) (c)	Cargo (1,000 tons) (d)
	No.	Tonnage (b)		
Arrivals				
1861-70.....	20,286	3,386	74	...
1871-80.....	17,516	4,085	73	...
1881-90.....	16,567	6,124	...	4,758
1891-900.....	20,894	12,946	193	7,381
1901-10.....	26,796	23,503	301	12,891
1911-20.....	15,769	18,259	230	14,942
1921-30.....	21,482	29,545	222	19,018
1931-40.....	19,066	33,702	193	18,134
1941-42.....	3,483	2,024	37	1,685
1946-50.....	10,044	21,571	93	19,199
1951-55.....	19,015	41,028	277	31,888
1956-60.....	25,584	57,365	375	46,185
Departures				
1861-70.....	20,330	3,378	71	...
1871-80.....	18,089	4,332	67	...
1881-90.....	15,963	5,882	...	1,684
1891-900.....	21,082	13,350	272	2,330
1901-10.....	26,724	23,597	361	2,652
1911-20.....	15,985	18,549	244	1,990
1921-30.....	21,759	30,057	240	2,841
1931-40.....	19,560	34,329	192	2,741
1941-42.....	3,242	1,572	44	488
1946-50.....	10,305	21,635	184	2,384
1951-55.....	19,690	41,937	356	6,571
1956-60.....	26,171	58,114	388	10,075

(a), (b), (c) and (d): Refer to note in preceding Table I.

Dividing data concerning international shipping movement (Table II) from those concerning coastal shipping (Table III) it will be seen that, in each of the two categories, the rise is very different

Table III - ANNUAL COASTAL SHIPPING MOVEMENT (a)
(Averages per Period)

PERIOD	Vessels		Passengers (1,000's) (c)	Cargo (1,000 tons) (d)
	No.	Tonnage (b)		
Arrivals				
1861-70.....	93,145	4,956	553	...
1871-80.....	88,255	8,092	477	...
1881-90.....	95,255	12,845	...	2,747
1891-900.....	89,597	14,544	289	2,522
1901-10.....	90,480	17,388	498	3,248
1911-20.....	114,543	19,199	949	4,025
1921-30.....	199,595	32,026	3,782	5,007
1931-40.....	299,718	48,215	3,828	8,796
1941-42.....	99,160	16,154	3,291	7,739
1945-50.....	104,835	13,780	3,037	4,864
1951-55.....	116,303	25,695	3,525	7,733
1956-60.....	124,201	37,121	4,766	12,206
Departures				
1861-70.....	91,356	4,905	497	...
1871-80.....	87,107	7,835	418	...
1881-90.....	95,214	12,982	...	2,877
1891-900.....	88,841	13,953	255	2,587
1901-10.....	90,509	17,234	475	3,222
1911-20.....	114,214	18,915	928	3,806
1921-30.....	199,088	31,428	3,782	4,864
1931-40.....	299,124	47,504	3,830	8,717
1941-42.....	99,276	16,620	3,280	8,120
1945-50.....	104,374	13,519	2,983	4,675
1951-55.....	115,571	24,805	3,489	7,817
1956-60.....	123,729	36,302	4,706	12,231

(a), (b), (c) and (d): Refer to note in preceding Tables I and II.

to that revealed in overall figures. If 1861-70 be considered equal to 100, the relative indexes are as follows:

International shipping

Tonnage: 1861-70 = 100; 1901-10 = 696; 1931-40 = 1,007; 1956-60 = 1,707.

Passengers: 1861-70 = 100; 1907-10 = 455; 1931-40 = 263; 1956-60 = 526.

Cargo: 1881-90 = 100; 1901-10 = 241; 1931-40 = 324; 1956-60 = 873.

Coastal Shipping

Tonnage: 1861-70 = 100; 1901-10 = 351; 1931-40 = 971; 1956-60 = 745.

Passengers: 1861-70 = 100; 1901-10 = 93; 1931-40 = 729; 1956-60 = 902.

Cargo: 1881-90 = 100; 1901-10 = 116; 1931-40 = 313; 1956-60 = 437.

It is obvious that the maximum increase in tonnage is among the heavier vessels used for overseas services. The passengers carried

by such vessels are today more numerous than during the classical emigration period and are most certainly more remunerative. In conclusion, cargo carried today is almost three times the quantity registered in 1931-40.

Civil aviation is relatively young both in Italy and the rest of the world. Indeed, in this country, air transportation goes back only about thirty five years but even in such a short period it is possible to analyse progress and stress the enormous expansion that has taken place (Table IV).

Table IV - ITALIAN AND FOREIGN CIVIL AVIATION. ANNUAL MOVEMENT AND TRAFFIC AT ITALIAN AIRPORTS (a) (*Averages per Period*)

PERIOD	Number		Tons		
	A/C	Passengers	Mail and Newspapers	Baggage	Freight
Arrivals					
1926-30.....	7,676	15,477	40	245	97
1931-35.....	12,322	37,616	243	492	151
1936-39.....	18,914	94,013	632	1,050	442
1947-50.....	28,829	217,444	1,177	2,862	2,014
1951-55.....	34,146	352,699	1,847	5,852	(b) 4,065
1956-60.....	56,487	975,899	3,259	(b) 24,849	
Departures					
1926-30.....	7,675	15,495	43	246	101
1931-35.....	12,319	37,345	252	476	168
1936-39.....	18,921	93,832	635	1,061	499
1947-50.....	28,820	222,970	1,105	2,929	2,323
1951-55.....	34,126	354,351	1,795	6,002	(b) 5,166
1956-60.....	56,483	975,568	3,618	(b) 27,818	

(a) Estimates began in 1926. Data relative to passengers, baggage and freight include paying and non-paying; the period 1933-39 includes movement and traffic at East African airports.

(b) From 1953 onwards, newspapers are included under freight.

Once again using 100 as the base figure for the so-called «pioneer period» (1926/30), the following indexes are registered.

PERIOD	Aircraft Arriving and Departing	Passengers Carried	Baggage, Post and Freight Carried
1926-30.....	100	100	100
1931-35.....	161	241	231
1936-39.....	246	606	561
1947-50.....	375	1,421	1,612
1951-55.....	445	2,281	3,211
1956-60.....	736	6,295	7,735

No one can avoid seeing that civil aviation, which was already well developed in the period 1931-39, has expanded beyond all expectations, reaching a point where the number of aircraft arriving at, and departing from, Italian airports, is four times as many as that registered during the four years immediately preceding the second world war. It will also be seen that, because of the much greater capacity of modern aircraft, passenger movement has increased tenfold while baggage, mail and freight has risen twelvefold.



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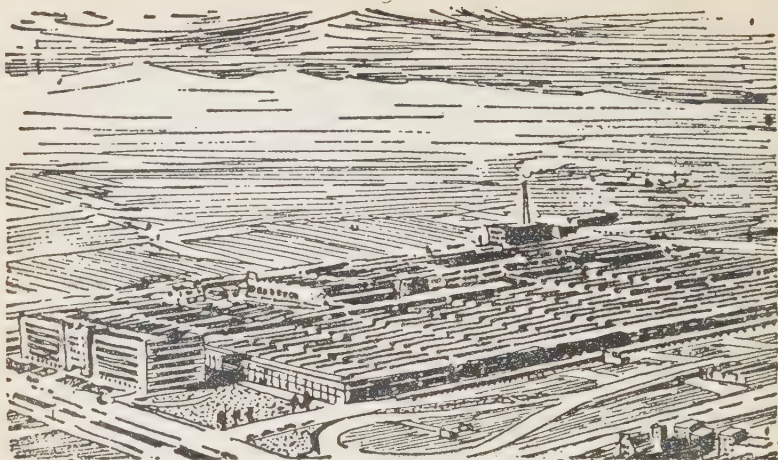
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FIAT

THE ARTISAN TRADES IN SARDINIA

Encouragement and help given by central and regional government. Characteristic Products

Although having centuries old origins, the Sardinian artisan trades have renewed their structure and working methods and are continuing to modify their ideas to meet modern requirements and to penetrate spheres that were once closed to them.

From the time it was instituted, the Region of Sardinia has given much time and thought to the artisan trades, which are numerous in the island, providing aids to improve quality and the commercial structure and duly considering that such forms of labour provide an income for a large number of families. To this end, the competent department of the regional government drafted Law No. 70 of December 15, 1950 which authorized the creation of a special fund from which artisans could obtain loans. From that time, those tradesmen wishing to purchase new machinery and equipment were able to turn to this fund for the money they required, repayment being made over a lengthy period (ten six-monthly installments at 3.5 percent). In this way, they were able to avoid falling into heavy debt.

Law No. 70 has since been modified under Regional Law No. 18 of November 7, 1959 which reduced the interest on loans to 3 percent, increased the maximum loans for purchase of machinery to 6 million lire (repayable in twelve six-monthly installments and introduced loans up to 2 million lire for operational expenses, repayable in 8 three-monthly installments. The said law also contemplated the granting of loans up to a maximum of 20% of estimated expenditure, provided that such schemes were approved by the competent authorities. At December 31, 1961, a total of 3,667 requests for loans had been received and the artisans concerned had been financed to the extent of 3,894 million lire.

Such data appears all the more important if the individual trades are considered, as in the following table.

Examination of this shows that 75% of the total was absorbed by the more highly productive branches, thus testifying to the fact that division of available funds has been based on a strictly regional policy directed towards strengthening and raising output. Because of the decisions taken by the authorities, the potentiality of the artisan trades has increased sharply and those branches which enjoyed but

inadequate means a short time ago are now beginning to benefit from the fruits of a far-seeing policy.

By starting vocational training and refresher courses, the regional authorities have reawakened the latent forces of a long tradition and guided artisans towards producing those goods which can readily be placed on the market. Such training schemes were originally contem-

BRANCH	Loans (No.)	Amount 1,000's of lire)	BRANCH	Loans (No.)	Amount (1,000's of lire)
Foodstuffs	544	868,190	Jewelry, silverware, watches and similar	36	14,624
Rural and mixed artisan trades	19	19,510	Hairdressing and similar ...	153	93,100
Auxiliary sanitary trades ..	12	13,870	Marble, stone and similar ..	299	322,797
Pottery, glass and similar...	39	49,000	Tailors, dressmakers, hatters, clothing accessories	512	375,000
Leather	267	96,689	Embroidery and weaving ..	11	7,500
Decorating and furnishing...	10	7,600	Printing and similar	34	56,960
Photography and similar...	38	30,820	Transport	312	611,275
Plumbing, heating, lighting and similar	61	50,650	Sundry	22	21,295
Timber and wood	757	679,808			
Metals	541	575,587	<i>Total</i>	3,667	3,894,275

plated in Law No. 68 of December 14, 1950, later modified under Law No. 16 of June 25, 1952 and merged with Law No. 2 of January 20, 1956 which considerably widened the manner in which the provisions could be executed and provided additional stimulus.

Perhaps the most valuable instrument that the regional authorities have introduced as a means of giving the island's artisans a solid organization is Law No. 6 of March 2, 1957 which authorized the institution of the Sardinian Association for the Organization of the Artisan Trades (I.S.O.L.A. - Istituto Sardo Organizzazione Lavoro Artigianato). This body is responsible for promoting and executing schemes concerned with the economic strengthening and technical progress, as well as commercial organization, of all the Sardinian artisan trades. It is authorized to open training schools with annexed workshops, assist artisans in obtaining the necessary raw materials, assuring sales of products at the best possible prices through special shops opened in the main cities and towns of the island and the mainland (these are to be found at Cagliari, Sassari, Nuoro, Rome, Milan and Genoa) and to undertake all other initiatives that are likely to swell production and penetrate new markets.

But attention must be drawn to the efforts of the competent department which has done a great deal towards finding work for artisan enterprise, reducing fiscal pressure and maintaining close relations with the operations of the Provincial Artisan Commissions and the Provincial Health Services.

The regional authorities have greatly encouraged publicity, using every means possible to draw public attention to the vast range of products available. Commercial relations have been successfully opened with many Italian and foreign organizations and enterprises. Sardinian artisans have been able, as a result, to exhibit their goods at the following: Sardinian Samples Fair, The International Fair at Florence (15th. to 24th. editions), the Munich Artisan Fair (from the 3rd. edition onwards), the 11th. Triennale at Milan, etc.

The following are some of the typical artisan products that enjoy a sure market:

Woven goods: These are among the most characteristic products of the Sardinian artisan trades and animal and bird life is perhaps the most popular theme. Horses, deer and even the peacock, which derives from remote Egyptian influence, have been woven into tapestries for centuries. Carpets still have traditional patterns but styles are changing. The tapestries of Bonorva and Mogoro, reproduced according to strict traditional patterns by families and rural schools, and the rough carpets of Nule, Aggius, Oliena and Dorgali, are in sharp contrast to the high-quality linen curtaining and covers of Ploaghe and the products of Ittiri. More recent carpet production has brought the Sardinian artisan into the limelight while the contributions of the artists who work in close cooperation with them has widened the variety of patterns and designs and reproductions of old scenes or decorations are now flanked by others of definite modern trends. Tradition, however, still holds in the case of the hand-woven and coloured unwashed wool products which are often tinted in a manner which remains secret.

Embroidery: There are countless designs and patterns in the numerous traditional costumes of Sardinia but time has also had its way. Some of the shawls of Oliena now have vivid colours in place of gold and even the linen tablecloths of Teulada are different, the course linen contrasting sharply with the vivid colours of the embroidery.

Pottery and Ceramics: The pottery of Assemini and Oristano has great purity of form and an enamel facing that makes it extremely popular as an expression of art. Shape is according to use. The small pitcher for water and the water bottle are something essential in the Sardinian countryside. Potters shape modern versions of objects that have been in use in the island for centuries. The use of enamel similar to that applied to ancient pottery permits some exceptionally fine effects to be obtained. Folklore themes are mixed with modern ideas in an exceptional variety of products and some

of the best examples are the small bronze statues made by the inhabitants of the "nuraghi".

Basketwork: New and more functional shapes and designs for the dwarf palm, cane, straw and asphodel baskets have given an entirely new character to local production. Sinnai is famous for some exceptionally beautiful types in black cane but many other kinds are to be found at Castelsardo, Flussio and San Vero Milis. The baskets of Ittiri give an idea of the more modern trends that are gradually replacing old designs and the manner in which artisans themselves are modernizing their ideas.

Wood Carving: The art of the wood carver finds a natural outlet in furniture. Carved chairs, panels, chests with carvings of obvious oriental influence and the spoons of Orani are examples of the wide variety of designs that are used in Sardinia. Very often it is the shepherds who are responsible for this work, devoting themselves to it as a pastime as they watch their flocks. Many of these carved wooden objects have great value. The wooden carnival masks of Mamoida are perhaps one of the most characteristic examples of this form of art in the island.

Cork: Cork is used for making copies of dried fruit and other objects which are then applied to vases and urns. This type of art stresses the uses to which a typically Sardinian product can be put.

Silverware and Jewellery: The characteristic bracelets are a dominating note in the costumes of the island. The jewellery of Sardinia has many forms and varieties ranging from the huge silver buttons of Ittiri to the filigree buttons of Nuoro, the corals of Alghero which are mounted in gold, the cameos of Cagliari, very traditional in their design and some exquisite ceramic necklaces, brooches and earing.

The effectiveness of the policy followed by the regional authorities on behalf of the artisans trades is reflected in the success of the Sardinian Artisan Fair held in a special pavilion that has been built at Cagliari. The fair reached its sixth edition in 1962 amid the unanimous approval of a large public and the praise of local and world press. It is an exposition that reveals the high quality of the goods that the Sardinian artisans produce and the manner in which they are changing the centuries-old traditions with new designs and forms, and it shows that they are capable of making much that is both beautiful and practical. Their new organization and the wide range of products they can now place on eager markets means that they have assumed an important role in Italian national economy.

AMATEUR SPORTS FACILITIES IN ITALY

A Growing Interest and Official Encouragement

Individual amateur enthusiasm has, to a great extent, been replaced by very definite organization that depends on specific regulations and training is now in the hands of experts who can draw on far better equipment. This has produced a much higher level in sport and has enabled a much more organic system to be introduced.

At the conclusion of the second world war, the attention of the competent organs was drawn to the question of physical training for members of the younger generations. The situation was critical from both a technical and psychological viewpoint, for much damage had been done by the war, buildings and sports grounds had been turned over to refugees fleeing from war zones and there was urgent need to infuse sporting activities and physical education with the competitive spirit that they had lost for various reasons. Further difficulties arose from an almost complete lack of instructors and trainers and the fact that the public authorities, faced with economic and social problems of a heavy nature, could not give the necessary time to examining and helping something that was not of immediate primary importance to the reconstruction of the country.

But three paths were chosen as a means of reaching a solution. The first consisted of a completely new teaching system to be adopted in schools, the second concerned physical training and sports facilities for persons undergoing compulsory military service and became the responsibility of the Armed Forces, while the third was started upon by the C.O.N.I. (Italian National Olympic Committee). The latter, in company with the Ministry of Public Instruction and the Ministry of Defence, opened several "training centres" so that young people could continue their sporting activities and prepare themselves for national and international events. Such an undertaking has produced excellent results and certainly paved the way to the successes gained during the Olympic Games in Rome and elsewhere and the victories scored by members of school sports associations, the Armed Forces, and the amateur clubs affiliated to the various federations.

Sport in Schools. - As observed earlier, the question of physical training in schools during the immediate post-war years pos-

ed innumerable difficulties. The competent bodies were faced with the task of creating a teaching corps that could efficiently execute any new programme and of building — *ex novo* — most of the gymnasiums, stadiums and sports grounds. Furthermore, many drastic modifications had to be made to the teaching system because of the complete change in the political structure which was entirely the opposite of that which had been in force in Italy for so long. This latter matter, however, was settled with the introduction of the German *Obermann system* and the widespread use of the scientific system used in Sweden (*Bauman, Ling, Jahn*). But even this type of physical training did not really produce the desired effects for it was strictly limited in its application. Signs of progress, however, were to be seen from 1947 onwards when schools began to show an interest in sport.

The Olympic Committee assumed a leading role in this and succeeded in constructing a bridge between the normal school curriculum and sports activities, acting as coordinator and controller and offering advice and funds to the Ministry of Public Instruction. This continued up to October 19, 1960 when a new phase in the history of physical education for Italian youth was introduced.

Sports practised by schools are chiefly carried out by *groups of students* who take part on a voluntary basis under the supervision of a headmaster or headmistress or someone authorized to substitute them.

Apart from receiving badges or certificates attesting to their ability, students also take part in school competitions and the provincial cross-country races, the latter open only to boys. There are, however, other competitions, such as the inter-province light athletics and ski, fencing and swimming competitions. Normal training is accompanied by instruction in health and hygiene (1).

Recent government decisions, plus valuable help from the Olympic Committee, are gradually permitting the competent organs to overcome the lack of gymnasiums and sports grounds available to schools and there are now signs that it will be possible to make greater use of the athletic abilities that many students are showing. Apart from the educational advantages gained from lengthy training with the sports facilities provided, the results achieved have brought about a new and absorbing interest in athletics and sports clubs are now anxious to obtain the services of the more promising juveniles. Up to 1961, the Italian Federation of Light Athletics

(1) At January 1962, there were 1,971 school sports groups, with 774,848 members (498,290 boys and 276,558 girls).

signed on 150 youngsters of both sexes to represent Italy in official international events. The figure is bound to rise as more and more sports grounds and gymnasiums are built for schools; at the moment there are 49 sports grounds open to school clubs and groups and these are equipped with everything that the enthusiast could desire, while others are at an advanced stage of construction. The Government programme contemplates the building of these sports centres in 92 provincial capitals.

The plan of collaboration embarked upon between the Olympic Committee and the Ministry of Public Instruction attaches great importance to the training of instructors. The preparation of staff was interrupted for about ten years following the closing of the Rome and Orvieto colleges (1943) but the situation eased in 1958 with the opening of the *Senior School of Physical Education* in Rome and similar centres under the authority of various public bodies. A three-year course, at university level, is offered and the chief objective is "to promote the progress of science applied to physical training and to furnish the scientific and technical knowledge necessary to the teaching and preparation of those who wish to undertake such a career". Apart from Rome, the Senior School of Physical Education has branches in Turin, Naples and Bologna. The course covers matters of a scientific nature and cultural and technical subjects, as well as exercises and training in the various branches of sport.

Sport in the Armed Forces. - Agreement between the Olympic Committee and the three Services was established in February 1954 when the Ministry of Defence and the President of the Committee signed a convention containing precise rulings as to the form of collaboration offered. The Olympic Committee promised to give financial aid in the building and equipping of sports grounds and clubs for members of the Armed Forces, to provide funds and technical assistance in the execution of the general schemes drafted by the three Services and to arrange competitions. The Committee also said that it would undertake the training of military instructors and collaborate in the promotion and organization of inter-service competitions and obtain the help of the competent national sporting federations. For their part, the three Services promised to assume responsibility for the opening of sports clubs for specialized training in certain branches of sport particularly adapted to the Armed Forces, such as the pentathlon, winter sports, riding and yachting, rowing, etc. They also said that they were prepared to promote mass sporting activities that would culminate in local championships

and even arrange competitions on a national level. Within the ambit of such collaboration, both the Olympic Committee and the three Services have been obliged, according to their possibilities, to take part in the organization of international sporting events and, in the years following the above agreement, both sides have succeeded in achieving results that are more than encouraging.

The Armed Forces have their own sports organizations and provide their own equipment and grounds. The *Army Sports Club* is very active and provides facilities for swimming, light athletics, rugby, squash, rowing and sculling, tennis, skiing, boxing, cycling, hockey, roller skating, judo, fencing and other more specialized branches that have a typical military character. The *Corps of Carabinieri* has its own clubs which are affiliated to the federations of boxing, shooting, judo, rowing, pentathlon, swimming and life-saving, fencing, light athletics, riding and jumping, while the sports clubs run by the *Navy* specialize in rowing and sculling, squash, light athletics, boxing, swimming, angling, clay pigeon shooting, basketball, heavy athletics and bowls. The *Air Force* has seven sports divisions and is a member of the federations of winter sports, light athletics, rowing and sculling, fencing and basketball. The *Finance Guards* concentrate on light athletics, skiing, yachting and rowing, swimming and life-saving, judo, fencing, shooting, squash, basketball and tennis. The *Public Security Corps*, with its « Fiamme Oro » sports groups, specializes in wrestling (Greco-Romano), weight lifting, boxing, shooting, swimming, riding, football, light athletics, judo, rugby, rowing, baseball and winter sports. In conclusion, the *Fire Service*, which has a very fine sporting tradition, is prominent in gymnastics, swimming and life-saving, rowing, heavy athletics, skiing, squash, light athletics and boxing.

The Services have used their own funds and financial aid from the Olympic Committee for the purpose of building or modernizing about 60 military sports clubs and fields and members of the Army, Navy and Air Force have gained well-deserved successes in international events and during the Olympic Games.

The Minister of Defence, Signor Giulio Andreotti, recently attended ceremonies marking the closing of the first Army National Pentathlon Championship. This championship falls within a much broader programme that the Ministry of Defence is promoting and encouraging as a means of stimulating the competitive spirit among the younger members of the Armed Forces.

The speech made by the Minister on this occasion reveals the objectives that the three Services have set out to reach.

« Although the primary task of the Armed Forces » said the Minister, « is to train the private citizen in the defence of his country, there are secondary goals in military life which must be safeguarded at all costs. Among them are the technical training of the individual and encouragement of sport. It is extremely satisfactory to note that, today, we have witnessed the collapse of an Italian record. The Army relay team in the 4 x 800 metres has beaten a record that has existed for more than 23 years and this clearly demonstrates the serious manner in which the Armed Forces are carrying out their programme ».

The Minister added: « We are, perhaps, nearer the forthcoming Olympic Games than those which took place last. The Armed Forces feel that they must, at all events, help the Olympic Committee and the sporting federations in preparations for the Games to be held at Tokyo. Orders have been given that all new barracks have sufficient space for sports equipment and installations, including standard size swimming pools. We believe that this is the correct path to follow and one which corresponds to the wishes of the new generations ».

The Italian National Olympic Committee

Apart from the activities of the Ministry of Public Instruction as regards sports facilities for schools and the efforts of the Ministry of Defence to promote a feeling of competitiveness among the Armed Forces, the National Olympic Committee, although assisting these two Government departments in the execution of their respective programmes, has played a direct role in encouraging young people to take a closer interest in sport. It has founded « *Youth Sports Centres* » which are chiefly concerned with providing training for those who show signs of ability in any of the many branches of sport.

The first of these centres, for swimming and tennis, opened in Rome in April 1954, to be followed almost immediately by another in Trieste, which provided swimming facilities. Later on in the same year others were opened at Turin and Bologna (swimming and tennis) and Genoa (swimming). In 1953, tennis courts were built at Genoa and another two centres at Florence (swimming) and Milan (tennis). In 1959, open-air and covered swimming pools were constructed at Naples. In view of the successes obtained with these, experiments were made in other branches of sport and valuable assistance was given by the various national federations. In 1960, three training schools specializing in fencing were opened in Rome, Milan

and Naples and, in 1961, the Committee's programme was widened to include gymnastics, light athletics, basketball, diving and water polo.

The following sports centres are operating at the present time: *light athletics* - Rome (2), Cagliari, Udine; *gymnastics* - Rome; *swimming* - Rome, Trieste, Turin, Bologna, Genoa, Florence, Milan, Naples; *basketball* - Rome; *water polo* - Genoa, Milan, Naples; *fencing* - Rome, Milan, Naples; *tennis* - Rome, Bologna, Genoa, Milan; *diving* - Rome, Milan, Genoa, Turin.

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CALENDAR OF EVENTS

NOVEMBER 1962

3. - The Minister of State Participations proposes that Professor Marcello Boldrini be nominated President of the National Hydrocarbons Agency. The new appointment is subsequently confirmed in a Decree signed by the President of the Republic. His position as Vice-President of the Agency is taken over by Signor Eugenio Cefis.

4. - The President of the Republic, accompanied by the Minister of Defence, Signor Giulio Andreotti, visits Redipuglia to pay homage to Italian war dead. The President also visits Gorizia, a city that was in the front line during the first world war. The Prime Minister makes a speech over the television network.

6. - The Italian representative to the United Nations, Ambassador Zoppi, speaking to the Political Commission, describes Italy's policy for disarmament.

— The author and literary critic, Antonio Baldini, dies in Rome today.

8. - The Prime Minister, concluding the television series «Political Forum», during which party leaders have had an opportunity of speaking to the public, refers to the many and important decisions that have been taken in the execution of the Government programme and to the marked collaboration between the centre-left parties.

11. - Local elections are held in 266 Communes. A total of 1,248,564 persons are due to vote and among the Communes are three provincial capitals.

12. - Final results of the partial local elections at Trieste, Ravenna and Massa Carrara.

— The Minister of Foreign Trade, Signor Preti, opens the 12th. Interna-

tional Textile Fair (M.I.T.A.M.) at Milan.

13. - The results of the local elections are officially published. The democratic parties strengthen their position while the extreme right wing parties lose some ground. The Italian Socialist Party and the Italian Communist Party remain static while the Liberals make some headway.

14. - In Brussels, Signor Rumor and the Undersecretary to the Ministry for Foreign Affairs preside over the meeting dealing with agricultural problems and Great Britain's entry into the E.E.C.

16. - The Italian Cabinet approves draft legislation concerning the Regions and agrees upon the allowance of «pre-wages» for undergraduates.

— The Senate approves the Bill on the new Electricity Board.

— The President of the Republic receives the British Defence Minister, Mr. Peter Thornycroft, accompanied by the British Ambassador in Rome.

—The Credits and Savings Committee, meeting under the chairmanship of the Minister of the Treasury, Signor Tremelloni, approves some new proposals for increasing liquidity on the financial market.

17. - The Japanese Prime Minister, Hayato Ikeda, pays an official visit to Rome in order to strengthen Italo-Japanese relations. Political talks open today.

— The Standing Committee on Justice of the Chamber of Deputies declares itself to be in favour of the creation of special courts to deal with press offences.

19. - The official visit of the Prime Minister of Japan concludes today. Mr.

Hayado Ikeda has talks with the President of the Republic and the Prime Minister, who receives an official invitation to Tokyo.

— Rear-Admiral Stefano Pugliese is appointed Commander of Allied Forces in the Mediterranean.

20. - At Strasbourg, Senator Piccioni and the Hon. Emilio Colombo both make speeches during the meeting of the Council of Ministers at the European Parliamentary Assembly.

— The Senate approves a Bill radically modifying conditions of life imprisonment. The Privy Seal explains the humanitarian principles contained in the Bill.

— The O.C.E.D. debate on agriculture concludes today. Italy has been represented by Signor Sedati.

21. - The Italian Cabinet approves a new Agricultural Bill which should be of considerable help in expanding rural economy.

— Professor Pescatore is again appointed President of the Southern Italy Development Fund during a meeting of the Italian Cabinet.

— The « Festival of Trees » is celebrated in Italy today. Special celebrations are held at Frosinone which are attended by the Undersecretary to the Ministry of Agriculture, Signor Camangi.

22. - The Prime Minister meets the Somali Prime Minister, Abdi Raskid Scemar. Successive talks reflect the cordial relations existing between the two nations.

24. - In London, the leader of the Italian delegation attending negotiations for Great Britain's entry to the E.C.M., Signor Colombo, holds talks with the Lord Privy Seal, Mr. Edward Heath. Mr. Heath is representing the United Kingdom in negotiations with the Six.

— The Danish Foreign Minister concludes an official visit to Rome. During his stay here, the Minister has met various Italian government exponents and representatives of political and industrial circles.

25. - The 13th. National Congress of the Italian Social Democrat Party concludes in Rome today. The Hon. Giuseppe Saragat obtains a majority vote (90,228) while the left wing representatives, Signor Preti and Signor Ariosto, receive 44,981 votes (30.6%). The right wing, led by Signor Rossi, obtains 12,151 votes (8.2%).

A Committee of Honour, under the chairmanship of Professor Arangio Ruiz, commemorates the tenth anniversary of the death of Benedetto Croce.

26. - The President of the Republic, accompanied by the Minister of Foreign Affairs, Senator Piccioni, leave on an official three-day visit to Athens where they will be the guests of the Greek royal family.

— United Kingdom-E.C.M. negotiations are discussed in London by Signor Colombo and Mr. Heath.

27. - The Italian Chamber of Deputies approves the Bill on the Electricity Board after a speech by Signor Colombo. The Bill nationalizing the electrical industry now becomes operative.

— In Athens, talks between President Segni and exponents of the Greek Government confirm the close relations between the two countries.

— The Prime Minister, Signor Amintore Fanfani, commemorates the late President of the National Hydrocarbons Agency, Signor Enrico Mattei.

28. - The President of the Republic receives the Italian community in Athens at the conclusion of his official visit.

29. - A joint communique revealing cordial Italo-Greek relations is issued on the conclusion of the official visit paid by President Segni.

— Ratifying the necessary Bill, the Chamber of Deputies expresses its approval of an official survey of the Mafia in Sicily.

— The Prime Minister, attending a meeting of the Standing Committee for Public Health of the Chamber of Deputies, explains the Government's plans for new hospitals.

DECEMBER 1962

1. - Local elections in 62 Communes of the provinces of Trento, Bolzano and Brindisi. Voters number 117,800.

— In Milan, the « Rezzara » Prize is awarded to Signor Emilio Colombo for his role in furthering European cooperation.

2. - The 10th. Congress of the Italian Communist Party opens in Rome today with a report by the Hon. Palmiro Togliatti, leader of the Party.

3. - The Prime Minister, attending the inauguration of an advanced technical course promoted by the Institute for Industrial Reconstruction, speaks to Italian specialists who will be sent to the emergent countries under an aid programme.

— Signor Macrelli opens in Florence a seminar organized by Euratom. The Minister makes a speech in which he describes the historical background of European federalism.

4. - Senator Bo, attending the opening of the new head offices of the National Hydrocarbons Agency at Rome's Fair Ground, commemorates the late Signor Enrico Mattei and describes his brilliant career.

— The Supreme Defence Council holds a meeting at the Quirinal which is attended by the President of the Republic.

5. - The Chamber of Deputies approves a vote of confidence in the Government following a Cabinet reshuffle.

6. - The President of the Republic visits Milan to inaugurate several important public works.

— The Senate approves a vote of confidence in the Government following a Cabinet reshuffle.

8. - Pope John XXIII closes the first session of the 2nd. Vatican Ecumenical Council with an official message.

— Visiting Turin, the Italian Prime Minister describes the Government's achievements in a speech on « A Centre-left Policy and the Progress of Italy ».

— The visit of the President of the Republic, Signor Antonio Segni, to Mi-

lan concludes with the opening of the new airport at Linate.

— The leader of the Italian Communist Party, concludes the convention being held at Rome's Congress Palace. He is again appointed Secretary General of the Party.

— The Hon. Giuseppe Saragat is re-elected Secretary of the Italian Social Democrat Party. Dr. Tanassi is appointed Vice-Secretary.

— The Hon. Giulio Andreotti, Minister of Defence, commemorates the first battle fought by the reorganized Italian Army after September 8, 1943, at Montelungo (Caserta).

10. - The President of the Republic and the Prime Minister attend ceremonies marking the centenary of the Court of Accounts (State Auditor's Department). The new premises of the Court are officially inaugurated and both the President of the Republic and the Prime Minister make speeches for the occasion. The President of the Court also reads a report on the past year.

— Senator Medici issues an official circular in which he explains the functions and responsibilities of the new « Organization and Method » departments that are to be created in each Government department.

11. The President of the Republic is present at the inauguration of the new academic year of the War College at Civitavecchia.

— The Italian Foreign Minister, Senator Piccioni, arrives in Genova to head the Italian delegation attending the 18 power disarmament talks.

12. - The Chamber of Deputies approves the Bill on the creation of the Friuli-Venetia Giulia Region which will be granted a special Statute.

— The President of the Republic and Signor Russo attend the concluding ceremonies of the « Centenary of the Italian Post Office ».

— The Senate approves the institution of the « Molise Region » which will now be independent of Abruzzo.

13. - The Standing Committee for Constitutional Affairs of the Chamber of Deputies opens discussions on the four Bills dealing with the new Regions.

14. - The Italian Cabinet approves the Bill on amnesty and pardon.

15. - The President of the Republic hands over awards to company executives who have particularly distinguished themselves in the field of labour.

17. - During talks between General De Gaulle and the Italian Foreign Minister in Paris, both statesmen discuss European problems and prospects.

18. - The Italian Prime Minister, Signor Amintore Fanfani, speaking at a convention of representatives of the Maremma Land Reclamation Agency, repeats the Government's determination to bring about overall improvements in agriculture.

19. - The Senate approves the law « sul nubilitato » which forbids dismissal from employment upon marriage. Of exceptional importance to women workers, this law also forbids dismissal for reasons arising from marriage.

— The President of the Republic inaugurates the « Institute for Legislative Documentation and Research » at Palazzo dei Ginnasi in Rome. Operating under Professor Antigono Donati, this institute will explain parliamentary procedure to the emergent nations.

20. - The new convention between the governments of 24 African states and the six member nations of the E.E.C. is signed in Brussel today.

21. - The President of the Republic visits the Chamber of Deputies and the Senate to exchange Xmas greetings with members. In an address to the Speaker of the Chamber of Deputies, he refers to the responsibilities of Parliament as the defender and guarantor of democra-

tic freedom. The President later receives members of the diplomatic corps accredited to the Italian Government.

— The activities of the Chamber of Deputies and the Senate are described in speeches made by the respective Speakers prior to the beginning of the Xmas recess.

— The Chamber of Deputies approves the Secondary School Bill. It will come into force at the beginning of the next scholastic year.

— The Hon. Emilio Colombo describes the events of the past six months in Brussels and the progress that has been made within the European Community.

22. - At the end of a meeting of the Italian Cabinet, the Prime Minister, Signor Amintore Fanfani, refers to the way in which the Government programme has been speedily executed.

— The cruiser « Caio Duilio » (6,000 tons), the most modern warship of the Italian Navy is launched at Naples. Equipped with missiles, she will be used for anti-submarine duties.

— Senator Alberto Bergamini, doyen of Italian press correspondents and creator of the « third page » which attracted literary circles so much at the beginning of the century, dies in Rome.

28. - The Prime Minister, during a cordial press conference which is relayed over the television network, explains the social reforms that have been introduced during 1962. He refers to close collaboration between Parliament and the Government and Italy's contribution towards the safeguarding of peace and European unity.

— The President of the Constitutional Court meets press correspondents and explains the Court's activities during 1962.

30. - Comments on the various economic factors of 1962, published in the Italian press, all point to the continuation of the present favourable trend in this country and point to glowing prospects for the future.

ITALIAN RADIO PROGRAMMES IN ENGLISH

<i>Rome Time</i>	<i>Day</i>	<i>Programme</i>	<i>Wave Lengths</i>
PROGRAMME FOR NORTH AMERICA (EAST COAST)			
01.30-01.50	Daily	News Bulletin, Talk and Records	31.33
04.05-04.25			49.92
PROGRAMME FOR NORTH AMERICA (WEST COAST)			
04.05-04.25	Daily	News Bulletin, Talk and Records	25.20
			31.33
PROGRAMME FOR AUSTRALIA, NEW ZEALAND AND THE FAR EAST			
10.00-10.40	Daily	News Bulletin	
	Sunday	Talk: Spotlight on Opera	
	Monday	We Want Music	
	Tuesday	Music For All	16.85
10.15-10.40	Wednesday	Music For Everyone	16.91
	Thursday	Music From Italy	19.58
	Friday	Music For All	
	Saturday	Music For All	
PROGRAMME FOR NORTH-WEST AFRICA AND NEAR EAST			
10.20-10.40	Daily	News Bulletin and Music	25.20
			31.33
PROGRAMME FOR THE MIDDLE AND FAR EAST			
11.45-12.05	Daily	News Bulletin and Music	13.91
			16.85
			19.48
PROGRAMME FOR SOUTH AFRICA			
16.35-16.55	Daily	News Bulletin and Music	13.91
			16.88
PROGRAMME FOR GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND			
19.20-19.35	Daily	News Bulletin	
	Sunday	Light Music	
	Monday	Request Music	
	Tuesday	Light Music	31.33
19.35-19.40	Wednesday	Neapolitan Songs	49.92
	Thursday	Talk	
	Friday	Light Music	
	Saturday	Talk	
18.55-19.00	Thursday	Problems of NATO	30.90
19.00-19.30	Monday	Problems of European Unity	41.24
			50.34
NOCTURNE FROM ITALY			
23.05-06.30	Daily	Varied Musical Programme; News 1 a. m., 2 a. m., 3 a. m., 4 a. m., 5 a. m., 6 a. m.	355
			49.50
			91.53

Please note: Possible changes in times and wavelengths will be notified during broadcasts.

The three National Programmes of the RAI are broadcast on short and medium waves.
Below is a list of programme times and wavelengths.

	<i>Day</i>	<i>Time</i>	<i>Wavelength</i>	
1st Programme	Holidays	6.30-0.15	approx. 49.50 metres	6.06 Mc/sec.
	Weekdays	6.30-14.20; 15.15-0.15	» 31.53 »	9.515 »
2nd Programme	Holidays	9-12; 13-14.30	» 41.81 »	7.175 »
	Weekdays	9-12.30; 13-23 approx.		
3rd Programme	Holidays	16-24	» 75.09 »	3.995 »
	Weekdays	19-24		



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